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ABSTRACT

This document, developed by the Organization of Eastern Caribbean States (OECS) working group in 1991, presents recommendations for educational reform for OECS region. The plan was derived through analysis of the educational systems of the sub-region, interaction with chief education officers of OECS countries, national and subregional consultations, and a literature review. The first section describes the purpose of the reform effort, process, context of the eight Eastern Caribbean states, the developmental imperatives dictating educational reform, and the characteristics and state of education in the subregion. The second section describes the proposed reform strategies for: (1) harmonizing the education systems of the OECS; (2) reforming early childhood, primary, secondary, tertiary, and adult education; (3) reforming the terms and conditions of service of teachers; (4) reforming the management and administration of the education systems; and (5) reforming educational finance. Appendices contain project area profiles, a list of participants in the national and sub-regional consultations, and regional comparisons of performance in Caribbean Exam Council examinations. (LMI)

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FOUNDATION FOR THE FUTURE: OECS EDUCATION REFORM STRATEGY

by the

EDUCATION REFORM WORKING GROUP

ERROL MILLER, CHAIRMAN

ANTHONY LOCKHART

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SECRETARIAT, CASTRIES, ST. LUCIA

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FOREWORD

OECS Ministers of Education meeting in Tortola, British Virgin Islands in October 1990 at their Fourth Annual consultation agreed on the need to devise an Education Reform Strategy for the OECS region. This very timely and critically important decision set in train a process involving the establishment of an Education Reform Working Group in March 1991 with financial assistance coming from the Canadian International Development Agency.

With its membership drawn almost completely from among OECS professional educators the Working Group, in the six-month period following its establishment in March 1991, has succeeded in preparing through a process involving national consultations and with regional and extra-regional inputs from education specialists, a body of recommendations worthy of serious consideration. Aptly entitled - Foundation for the Future: OECS Education Reform Strategy - the review, analysis and recommendations contained therein should prove of on-going interest and relevance and provide guidance to professionals active in the field of education in the OECS region.

As the Report now stands and is presented here, its contents and in particular the views expressed in it, are entirely those of the Working Group.

However, Ministers at the annual meeting held on 10-11 October, 1991 in Dominica broadly reviewed the Report and it is now to be the subject of detailed technical consideration at both the national and sub-regional levels. Subsequent to this Ministers will decide on specific policy areas which they wish to pursue.

It is their intention, in the interim however, that the contents of the Report should receive the widest possible circulation among persons interested in educational policy and development in the OECS and beyond.

The Organisation of Eastern Caribbean States is extremely grateful to the Canadian International Development Agency for the support which it has given to permit the timely preparation of the Report and to ensure its widespread circulation.

Vaughan A. Lewis
Director-General
OECS

December 1991

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Section A

The OECS Context of Education Reform

Chapter 1

Background, Purpose and Process

Background

The Ministers of Education of the eight countries of the Organization of Eastern Caribbean States, OECS, at their Fourth Annual Meeting held in Tortola in October 1990, decided that it was prudent and necessary to establish a sub-regional strategy for the reform of education in the OECS. Such a strategy would provide the basis for national development, the framework for sub-regional initiatives and a focal point for regional cooperation in education within the Caribbean. It would also establish the broad parameters within which donor involvement and development cooperation would be sought and coordinated.

Acting on the decision of the Ministers of Education, after consultation with the Ministries of Education, and with financial assistance from the Canadian International Development Agency, the Director-General of the OECS Secretariat established the Education Reform Working Group in March 1991. The Working Group was mandated to produce an education reform strategy within six months of its appointment.

To appreciate fully the decision of the Ministers of Education and the action of the Director-General of the OECS to commission the development of an education reform strategy for the sub-region, it is necessary to make reference to several initiatives and developments within and outside the education sector in the OECS sub-region and in Caricom.

1. During the decade of the 1980s UNESCO, through the Major Project in Latin America and the Caribbean, had been working with governments to develop education plans to eliminate illiteracy in the adult population and ensure universal primary education in the school age population by the year 2000. All Caricom countries had responded positively to this UNESCO initiative and had developed plans towards this end.
2. The work of the Major Project was overtaken by the World Conference on Education for All sponsored by the Inter-Agency Commission in

Thailand in March 1990. Starting with the preparatory Caribbean Consultation in Kingston in November 1989, Caribbean countries contributed positively to the final drafting of the World Declaration on Education for All and also to the Framework for Action. As active participants in this unique global resolve to advance basic education, OECS governments were committed to action.

3. Consistent with its mission to advance regional cooperation, the Caricom Secretariat had launched several initiatives with both direct and indirect implications for education reform:
 - The Sixth Meeting of the Caricom Ministers of Education in St Lucia in May 1986 decided to commission a survey of technical and vocational education and training in the region. The report of the survey was submitted to the Ministers in May 1988. Following further work by the Caricom Secretariat, the Regional Strategy for Technical and Vocational Education and Training was published in May 1990.
 - In Kingston in November 1989 the Secretariat held a consultation on the Future of Education in the Commonwealth Caribbean. The report of this Consultation identified critical areas in which reforms were needed in Caribbean education.
 - Following the Kingston Consultation and the World Conference on Education for All, in 1990 the Secretariat established an Advisory Task Force on Education with a mandate to develop reform strategies over a three year period.
 - The Caricom Secretariat with assistance from the Commonwealth Secretariat published in 1988 the Bourne Report, Caribbean Development to the Year 2000: Challenges, Prospects and Policies. This report focussed on the economic future of the Caribbean. While the Report was concerned primarily with economic development, it made several recommendations

about the education and human resource development necessary to support various economic policy initiatives.

As members of Caricom, OECS countries are committed to the education initiatives commissioned by the Caricom Ministers of Education and executed by the Secretariat. However, while recognizing that all these Caricom initiatives have implications for the development and reform of education in the OECS countries, it was also recognized that these implications had to be understood, interpreted and implemented within the context of OECS sub-regional realities. OECS countries also had to choose to respond individually or collectively to the demands for education reform arising from these regional initiatives.

4. The West Indian Commission established by Caricom Prime Ministers has had consultations with a wide cross section of groups, communities, interests and persons in all OECS countries. Education was a major item on the agenda of concerns in all countries. This is indicative of great and deep public anxiety over the state and future of education in Caribbean countries including the OECS.
5. Given the heightened global and regional interest and activity in the education sector and national anxiety about the state of education, Ministries of Education within the OECS were experiencing request and response overload. Multilateral, bilateral and non-governmental agencies have been making increased requests of Ministries of Education concerning areas of need and prospects for projects. Some small Ministries were extended beyond their limits in seeking to respond to these requests. More importantly, in a context in which the public purse, in some countries, is close to its limits on public expenditure, the danger of the education sector becoming driven by uncoordinated externally funded projects seemed very real. Equally important was the danger of the waste of scarce resources through needless duplication or through misplaced priorities. While some Ministries were better poised than others, all were sensitive to the need for coordination and the sorting out of priorities.
6. Within the OECS itself major changes loom on the horizon. These include freer movement of people within the OECS, greater political unity and a shift in the development strategies employed in the light of changes in the global

market place. Each of these has profound implications for education.

The Education Reform initiative within the OECS was intended to take account of these national, sub-regional, regional and global developments, which all had implications for the education sector. The intentions of the OECS Ministers of Education seemed to have focussed on the need for a comprehensive, integrated, long term, collective approach to education within the context of national, sub-regional, regional and global imperatives. The OECS reform strategy was therefore broadly conceived and interrelated to both internal and external events on the education landscape.

Purpose

The mandate and the mission of the Education Reform Working Group were clearly set out in its Terms of Reference:

1. Review the relevant literature and documentation on the state of education in the sub-region and other relevant issues.
2. Develop a conceptual strategy for an educational reform strategy for the sub-region, identifying all the elements of the educational systems that should be addressed.
3. Organize sub-regional and national consultations involving key personnel from Ministries of Education, education specialists, and persons of proven experience in the field of education, to discuss the conceptual framework, priority areas and a possible implementation plan for any sub-regional strategy so developed.
4. Consult with important sectors/interest groups in OECS member states e.g. labour unions, the private sector, parent-teachers associations, political parties, religious denominations and others to be identified to ensure the widest possible community inputs in the creation of a sub-regional strategy, having due regard to local concerns/priorities.
5. Ensure that due consideration is given in the designing of a sub-regional strategy to current and foreseeable demographic trends.
6. Give due consideration to the possibilities for the application of the concept of "Centres of Excellence" in the overall reform of the education sector.
7. Convene a forum of distinguished intellectual leaders in the region to discuss issues and options and articulate visions for the sub-region's educational future.

8. Take into consideration in pursuance of its mandate the exercise being executed by the Caricom Advisory Task Force on Education in the effort to arrive at the most effective strategy for education reform in the OECS sub-region.
9. In the development of a reform strategy, seek to prepare a profile of priority areas from which regional projects can be developed for external funding.
10. Submit to the Director-General within a period of approximately six months after initiation of the exercise the draft regional strategy.

The Education Reform Working Group established by the Director-General consisted of the following members:

Mrs Mary Fenton
Director of Education, Montserrat
Dr George Forde
Education Planner, St Lucia
Mr Anthony Lockhart
Chief Education Officer, Dominica
Mr Bertram Ross
Principal, College of Further Education
St Kitts and Nevis
Mrs Evelyn Sheppard
Deputy Chief Education Officer,
Antigua and Barbuda
Mr Francis Sookram
Senior Education Officer, Grenada
Mr Cools Vanloo
Education Planner, St Vincent and the
Grenadines
Prof. Errol Miller
University of the West Indies, Mona
Chairman.

Process

In mandating the Working Group to develop a conceptual strategy for the reform of education in the OECS, the Terms of Reference stressed two elements: the review of work already done and consultation with a wide cross-section of interests and individuals inside and outside the sub-region. The process used to develop the Reform Strategy was strongly influenced by these two elements.

The activities and exercises undertaken by the Working Group, and from which the Reform Strategy was developed, can be briefly set out as follows.

1. Analysis of the Education Systems of the Sub-region

The Working Group analyzed the education systems of the OECS countries by developing a conceptual framework consisting of six elements and nine perspectives.

The six elements were:

- the education of children, early childhood and primary schooling
- the education of adolescents, secondary schooling
- the education of adults, formal and non-formal programmes
- the terms and conditions of service of teachers
- the management and administration of education
- the financing of education.

The nine perspectives were:

- past reforms
- current policies
- the legal basis of education
- access and equity issues
- efficiency and wastage issues
- quality and effectiveness issues
- technology and methodology practices
- constraints
- vision and mission.

The six elements and nine perspectives constituted a conceptual matrix within which to establish and evaluate the current characteristics and features of the educational system of the eight OECS countries. This analysis was one means of identifying the strengths and weaknesses of education as it is currently organized and identifying issues and problems to be addressed in the reform process.

2. Interaction with Chief Education Officers of OECS Countries

The Working Group decided that throughout the period of the exercise it would seek every available opportunity to interact with the Chief Education Officers of the OECS countries with the view of benefitting from their inputs in the development of the reform strategy. The analysis of the education systems of the sub-region was written in note form and entitled "First Thoughts on Education Reforms of the OECS Working Group". It was given to the CEOs on the occasion of the Eastern Caribbean Standing Conference of Teacher Education held in Antigua in April 1991. CEOs were asked for their comments and

criticisms and gave these to members of the Working Group in interviews during the country visits.

The Working Group also briefed and updated the CEOs on the activities and thinking of the Group at the Meeting of Chief Education Officers held in Tortola in July 1991. Through these interactions the Working Group benefitted from the views and opinions of persons with the most current 'hands on' experience of the operation of the education systems of the sub-region.

3. National Consultations

Following the guidelines set out in the Terms of Reference, the Working Group visited each of the eight OECS countries and had consultations with a broad cross-section of persons and interests in each country. The formula used for these national consultations was that the Chairman plus two members of the Group would visit each country. As far as was possible, members from the Windward Islands visited the Leewards and vice versa. The member of the Working group resident in the country organized the consultations. The Working Group met with representatives of various groups for approximately one hour each. Written comments were invited and received in several instances. Each national consultation was carried out over two or three working days. The exercise was conducted over the entire month of May. (See Appendix B for the list of institutions and individuals who participated in the National Consultations).

The national consultations were rich sources of views and visions of the reform of education in the OECS. While diverse and conflicting views and recommendations were received there were several areas of consensus. The national consultations also gave evidence of specific initiatives being taken by one or two countries that had implications for the entire sub-region.

4. Commissioning of Literature Reviews and Studies

The Working Group commissioned state-of-the-art reviews on several aspects of education in order to benefit from the best available knowledge and information on those aspects of the operation of education systems. The following were the papers commissioned:

- Future Directions of Primary Education in the OECS
Dr Arthur Richardson, Lecturer, Faculty of

Ed., UWI Cave Hill, and Mr Leroy Sutton, Primary School Principal, Antigua.

- Future Directions of Secondary Education in the OECS
Mrs Muriel Gill, Retired Deputy Chief Education Officer, St Lucia.
- A Review of Reforms in Technical and Vocational Education
Dr David Wilson, Ontario Institute for Studies in Education.
- A Review of Reforms in Tertiary Education
Professor Norman Henchey, Professor Emeritus, McGill University.
- The Statutory Organization of Education in the OECS Sub-region
Dr Kenny Anthony, Lecturer, Faculty of Law, UWI Cave Hill.
- Educational, Administrative and Management Reforms in Small Commonwealth States
Dr John Boich, Caremac Consulting.
- Demographic Projections for Eight OECS Countries
Mr Jack Harewood, Consultant.
- International Migration and Schooling in the Eastern Caribbean
Alan Simmonds and Dwaine E. Plaza, York University.

In addition to the above, the Working Group attempted to conduct two studies.

- Mr Lawrence Wells of the OECS Secretariat collected data for the Working Group on the financing of education in most OECS countries.
- The Chairman of the Working Group, with assistance from Miss Marjorie Myers retired Principal of Shortwood Teachers' College, analyzed the performance of students from the OECS countries in the CXC examinations over the period 1984 to 1990.

5. Sub-regional Consultation of Intellectual Leaders

The Working Group held a three day Sub-regional Consultation in Antigua between July 1 - 3. The Participants were the authors of the reviews listed previously, Caribbean experts in education, representatives of regional agencies active in the field of education, international agencies funding educational development in the Caribbean and officials of the Ministry of Education, Antigua and of the Antigua State College. The authors of the reviews made

presentations on their papers on the first two days of the Consultation. On the third day the members of the Working Group suggested the broad outlines of the reform strategy that seemed to be emerging. The outlines were commented on and criticized in plenary sessions. (See Appendix C for the list of participants in the Sub-regional Consultation.)

6. Working Sessions of the Working Group

The Working Group had three working sessions as a full group. The Group was briefed by the OECS Secretariat on March 11th and 12th 1991. At the session the Group took the opportunity to develop its plan of work. The Group next met on April 15th to 19th. At this session each member presented a written report of his/her view of how education should be reformed in the OECS. Following presentation of these views the group developed the conceptual matrix for analyzing education in the sub-region and produced "First Thoughts". The final meeting of the Working Group was August 5th to 9th. At this meeting the Group Drafted the Final Report.

The Group benefitted from the participation of Dr Wolfgang Teschner, Education Advisor of the OECS Secretariat who participated in all the working sessions. It also benefitted from discussions with Mr Elroy Turnbull, Chief Education Officer, of the British Virgin Islands.

Limitations of the Process

The Terms of Reference required the Working Group to have extensive consultations within and outside the sub-region. There can be no question about the wisdom and advisability of such a requirement. Also the experience of the Working Group was that the consultative process was exceedingly rich and stimulating and will allow myriads of groups and individuals to claim and own different aspects of the strategy developed. However, the time allotted to conduct and complete the exercise placed great constraints on the consultative process itself. On reflection it would seem that the Group should have had at least one week in each country, in order to explore more fully both the ideas and the innovations in each country.

More time was also needed for regional consultation. For example, the Working Group did not get the opportunity to meet with the Caricom Task Force on Education. Although five members of the Caricom Advisory Task Force were invited to the Sub-regional Consultation in Antigua, and two were

able to attend and participate, it would have been desirable for the Working Group to meet with the entire Task Force for three or four days. The logistics of arranging such a meeting defeated the intention.

The Working Group was hampered in its task by the difficulty of obtaining reliable, comparable, historical and current data on various aspects of education in the OECS. For example, with the help of the OECS Secretariat the Working Group attempted to do an in-depth analysis of the financing of education within the OECS but could not complete the task because of the difficulty of obtaining comparable data from the countries in the time available to the Group. Again, the Working Group was unable to locate sufficient labour force data and labour market trends that would allow more focussed recommendations in some of the strategies proposed for tertiary and technical and vocational education.

The Working Group fully understood the urgency of the Ministers of Education and the Secretariat to have the task completed. Hence despite the limitations of time and data, it strove to meet the set deadlines for producing the Reform Strategy. What is highlighted here, therefore, is the fact that the Reform Strategy includes recommendations concerning mechanisms that would ensure continued consultation with all the parties concerned, as well as further study and ongoing refinement of the proposals made in this Report.

The Report

The Report is divided into two sections. Section A includes the Purpose of the reform exercise, the Process used to develop the strategy, brief descriptions of the eight Eastern Caribbean states that form the OECS, the developmental imperatives dictating educational reform and the current characteristics and state of education in the sub-region. Section B sets out the Reform strategies that have been identified for decision and action in the eight areas.

Chapter 2

The OECS: A Brief Synopsis

The Formation of the OECS

The Organization of Eastern Caribbean States, OECS, came into existence on 18th June 1981 when seven Eastern Caribbean countries - Antigua and Barbuda, Dominica, Grenada, Montserrat, St Kitts and Nevis, St Lucia and St Vincent and the Grenadines - signed the Treaty of Basseterre. In signing the Treaty, to which the British Virgin Islands subsequently acceded, the Governments of these Islands declared that they were "inspired by a common desire to strengthen the links between themselves by uniting their efforts and resources and establishing and strengthening common institutions which could serve to increase their bargaining power as regards third countries or groups of third countries."

Since 1981 the member states of the OECS have increased functional cooperation among themselves by signing a Memorandum of Understanding with Barbados in 1982 relating to mutual assistance in matters such as threats to national security, national emergencies, prevention of smuggling, search and rescue, fisheries protection, and customs and excise control. Further initiatives have included the establishing of a Sports Desk at the OECS Secretariat to organize sports events in the sub-region and to provide technical assistance and equipment to national associations; the establishment of the Eastern Caribbean Drugs Service to reduce the cost of essential pharmaceuticals through bulk purchasing; and the creation of the Eastern Caribbean Investment Service which is designed to seek and promote investment in the countries of the OECS as a whole.

The Central Authority of the OECS consists of the Prime Ministers and Chief Ministers of the member states. The Chairman of the Authority is elected from among the members on a rotating basis. The Central Authority is supported by the Secretariat, headed by a Director-General. The Central Authority establishes the policies to be carried out by the Secretariat and takes decisions about the future directions of the organization. The Director-General is responsible for the executive actions emanating

from the policies decided upon by the Central Authority. While the headquarters of the Secretariat is located in St Lucia, it has an Economic Affairs Unit located in Antigua and a Fisheries Unit located in St Vincent.

The member states of the OECS are also members of the Caribbean Community, CARICOM, which is the grouping of the countries of the Commonwealth Caribbean. CARICOM preceded the formation of the OECS and has as its objectives the promotion of functional cooperation and the fostering of regional unity. While the member states of the OECS all have individual membership in CARICOM, increasingly they share common positions in matters dealt with in this regional forum.

Common Features Among the Territories

The question may be asked, what are the common features which have facilitated the formation of the OECS? First, is geographic proximity. The islands of the OECS are all located between 12 to 18 degrees North Latitude and 61 to 63 degrees West Longitude. They form also a natural crescent in the Caribbean Sea beginning with the British Virgin Islands in the North and ending with Grenada in the South. All the islands are connected by the Leeward Islands Air Transport, LIAT, and one can fly to all the islands within a single day.

Second, all the islands are relatively small. Dominica, the largest island, is approximately 305 square miles, while Montserrat is the smallest with an approximate area of 39.5 square miles. The populations of these islands are also small. The total population of the OECS is 550,000 inhabitants. St Lucia is the most populated with approximately 145,000 while Montserrat has the smallest population, approximately 12,000.

Third, the member states of the OECS share a common history among themselves and with other countries of the Commonwealth Caribbean. They also share affinities with the non-English speaking Caribbean and with Latin America. Like the rest of the

Caribbean many of the OECS countries had indigenous Amerindian populations of Caribs and Arawaks who were virtually wiped out within a century of the Europeans' arrival in the Caribbean towards the end of the fifteenth century. After colonization of the islands by the Europeans the imperatives of sugar production led to the wholesale importation of Africans as slaves in a unprecedented social and economic experiment in which a minority of whites kept the majority of slaves in subjugation by a variety of means. By the eighteenth century the islands of the OECS had become very important in European geopolitics for, as Eric Williams points out in his book "From Columbus to Castro", Nevis in the late eighteenth century was more important in the commercial firmament than New York, Antigua surpassed Carolina and Montserrat rated higher than Pennsylvania.

In the nineteenth century the decline of sugar and the ascendancy of abolitionist sentiment in England led first to the outlawing of the slave trade and finally to the abolition of slavery itself in 1838. Following the abolition of slavery the problem of a supply of labour for the sugar plantation was not as acute in the islands of the OECS as was the case in other parts of the Caribbean. Consequently there was no large-scale importation of indentured labourers from China and India. Rather the abolition of slavery led to the formation of a peasantry and the growth of an urban artisan class. At the same time the coloured section of the societies became more assertive and in some islands began to clamour for an end to direct rule from Britain and the introduction of representative government.

Universal adult suffrage was introduced in most islands in the 1950s and brought with it the establishment of island governments of limited authority. Organized labour, which had grown self-conscious in the wake of the Great Depression, formed the base of the political parties that emerged.

In 1958 all the OECS countries with the exception of the British Virgin Islands became part of the West Indies Federation that fell apart in 1962. This, however, was not the first experience of federation for the OECS countries. All the islands had been part of either the Leeward or the Windward Islands Federations established as part of the colonial arrangements for administering this island chain during the 19th century. Antigua and Barbuda, St Kitts, Nevis and Anguilla, Montserrat and the Virgin Islands were always part of the Leewards, while St Lucia, St Vincent and the Grenadines and Grenada were always

part of the Windwards. Dominica in the course of its history has been part of both Federations.

Following the demise of the West Indies Federation in 1962, the OECS countries remained colonies of Britain but were granted Associated Statehood. Under this arrangement the islands exercised full internal self-government while Britain retained responsibility for defence and external affairs. Currently only the British Virgin Islands and Montserrat remain colonies of Britain. The others, beginning with Grenada in 1974 and through to Antigua and Barbuda in 1981 have become independent countries.

Because of their similar histories and their long association, the OECS territories, like the rest of the Commonwealth Caribbean have evolved systems of government and bureaucratic organisation that bear some relationship to the Westminster system of government. Similarly the orientation of the formal education systems has been British.

Differences Between the Countries

Notwithstanding these common and shared features there are differences among the OECS member states that are important in understanding the sub-region.

All the member states have strong island identities that are rooted in their history and in their cultural practices. These island identities give each island a distinct personality and should not necessarily be seen as a barrier to collaboration and cooperation. Rather they form the basis upon which functional cooperation can be advanced. Throughout the history of these islands there has been migration from one island to another and persons born in one island have risen to positions of prominence in others. Nevertheless, the strong island identities come to the fore in many circumstances.

Another of these differences is religion. Whereas the islands of B.V.I., Antigua, Barbuda, Montserrat, St Kitts, Nevis, St Vincent and the Grenadines are mainly Protestant, of the Anglican, Methodist and Moravian faiths, the islands of Dominica, St Lucia and Grenada are mainly Roman Catholic. These denominational differences seem to extend to secular matters as well.

A third difference is linguistic. In all the islands a Creole language is spoken. This is, in fact, the mother tongue of the majority of the people. While the Creole is English based in most islands, in Dominica, St Lucia and to a lesser extent Grenada the Creole has a largely French vocabulary. This linguistic difference, though seemingly insignificant,

should not be underestimated as it has implications for education in the context in which English is the official language of the sub-region and the language of instruction in school.

The fourth difference between the islands is related to their economies. The distinction can be made here between the Leeward and the Windward Islands. Though all the islands emerged from the plantation system, the Leewards have for the most part moved away from a reliance on agriculture as their main economic activity and have developed more service oriented economies. Among the Windwards, St Lucia is the one that appears to have diversified its economy to the greatest extent compared to the others. Dominica, St Vincent and the Grenadines and Grenada continue to rely heavily on agriculture especially on the export of bananas to the United Kingdom. In this regard the introduction of a single market in Europe in 1992, has profound implications for the economies of these islands. Because of the differences in the economic base of different member states in the OECS, economic growth, prosperity and recession are unlikely to manifest a uniform pattern across the sub-region. Periods of weak economic growth in some countries could coincide with strong growth in other countries depending on the nature of global economic trends at that particular time.

Current Developments

During the decade of the 1980s American influence in the OECS became more pronounced, as following the granting of independence in six of the eight countries, American agencies became active in providing developmental assistance in numerous areas. Equally important has been the coincidence of the success of rural electrification programmes and the spread of cable television in the sub-region. Cable television has become one of the most popular sources of entertainment in several islands. As yet there are no major studies of the influence of television on the deeply rooted attitudes and beliefs of the people in the sub-region. However, there are some superficial manifestations of influence as seen in hairstyles, modes of dressing, language and music preferences, and some would argue, in drug abuse. Already there is much debate concerning the so-called crisis in values related to these new influences.

At the Eleventh meeting of the Central Authority, on 28th and 29th May 1987, it was agreed, following discussion of the question of closer political union among countries, "that Member-Governments would engage in a process of comprehensive con-

sultation within their countries, including a referendum on this matter before deciding on further appropriate steps." Since that time a process of public discussion of political union has been taking place in the sub-region. The Governments of the Windward Islands have established a regional Constituent Assembly as the main forum for organized dialogue within their countries. No similar action has been taken in the Leeward Islands. In fact, on the 3rd July 1987 the Government of Antigua and Barbuda reported to the Central Authority that it was not interested in participating in political union. The outcome of this initiative is therefore still to be determined.

Concluding Comment

As the islands of the OECS contend with the challenges of unification and as they approach the twenty-first century they must come to a deeper understanding of themselves and the forces that are shaping their destiny. This understanding must be based on an acceptance of the internal dynamics of these societies as well as on an analysis of the influences of the wider world upon the sub-region. The OECS countries cannot afford to be too inward looking. Nor can they afford to open themselves up indiscriminately to sundry influences. They must choose a path for themselves and cling to a vision of what they want to be. In the process of choosing a path and shaping a vision, education is critical.

Chapter 3

Education in the OECS: An Assessment

This Chapter describes the structural elements of education in the OECS and assesses them from several different perspectives. These perspectives include past reforms, current policies, constraints, access and equity, efficiency and wastage, and quality and effectiveness. From this analysis it should be possible to come to a full understanding of the present state of the education systems of the OECS. Such descriptions and analyses are crucial to any proposed reforms.

The structural elements that will be examined are the four levels of the educational system itself, the legal framework, the teachers, management and administration and financing. These elements constitute the broad parameters of education as it is organized in the sub-region.

The Structure of the Educational Systems

The education system in all eight countries is organized into four different levels: early childhood or preschool; primary; secondary; and tertiary. Each of these levels will be discussed in turn.

Early Childhood Education

Early childhood education in the OECS has a history that is as long as the education system itself. The model of early childhood education that is currently used is virtually the same in all the territories, although all of the elements may not be present to the same degree in any two territories.

Overall, at least 50 per cent of children aged 3 and 4 years are enrolled in some sort of early childhood education programme, whether in preschools or in the preparatory department of primary schools. The responsibility for providing schooling is shared between the private sector, the churches, other non-governmental organizations and the Government. Government involvement varies widely between territories and within territories. In some territories the Government has actually built early childhood centres and provided staff for them. In other territories the Government may only facilitate by having a teacher at that level trained within the region. In a few territories Government has virtually left this sector alone.

In all territories fees are charged ranging from very high exclusive rates to nominal weekly charges. Most centres are run at low costs per student enrolled and the teachers are generally paid low salaries.

There is a high degree of community involvement in all aspects of governance of early childhood centres. Indeed it is generally expected that parents should get involved in fund-raising activities for the provision and maintenance of facilities. It should be noted as well that decisions affecting centres are usually made at the level of the centres with little input from Government officials. However, the Ministries of Education are aware of the growing interest in early childhood education and give as much support as is possible under the current systems.

The main modality of training teachers is through in-service workshops organized by a trainer designated as the co-ordinator/supervisor of early childhood education.

Most territories are aware of the Project in Early Childhood Education in Jamaica funded by the Bernard Van Leer Foundation. This project was conducted under the auspices of the University of the West Indies in the late 1960s and through the 1970s. In fact, it is fair to say that the curricula and training programmes currently used throughout the sub-region borrow heavily from the Jamaican Project.

The elements of the current model of early childhood education can be summarized briefly as follows:

- Shared responsibility for providing schooling between the private sector, the churches, other non-governmental organizations, and Government.
- User fees.

- Decentralized administration and decision making, with a high degree of involvement of communities in all aspects of governance.
- In-service training as the main modality of training teachers.
- Low costs per student enrolled.

It is important to note the limitations and constraints of this model as it operates to provide early childhood education.

First, although fees are very nominal there are some parents who are not able to afford them in addition to the cost of clothing, books and lunch. These parents refrain from sending their children to preschool. Consequently the children enter the system at the primary school level where there are no fees and some provision of lunch, and in some countries, books. It would appear that even nominal user fees restrict public participation in the school system, especially children from the poorest families.

Second, the quality of education delivered is in need of significant improvement in some preschools serving children living in depressed areas. There are very wide disparities in the quality of education delivered and in the output from this level of the educational system. The heavy dependence on community inputs means that the quality of education is largely determined by what the community can afford. Wealthier communities can provide better trained teachers, better pay and offer greater support services for the children, resulting in better quality early childhood education being delivered. As such this model of providing early childhood education runs the danger of reinforcing the socioeconomic status quo. Without modifications to mitigate this weakness, this model becomes an agent of the status quo.

Third, the low per student cost is really the product of low levels of professional training among the teachers employed to teach at this level and the very low salaries they are paid. In several instances basic school teachers are paid less than the minimum wage. That the minimum wage law is not enforced is symptomatic of the plight of those who teach in these schools. In providing education a central question is, who pays? At first glance it would appear that in the model used to provide low cost early childhood education it is the teachers, all female, who provide the care and instruction, who pay a considerable portion of that cost through not being appropriately remunerated for their services.

A contrary position is that the low cost of early childhood education is really at the cost of the children and not the teachers; that the low salaries paid to these poorly educated and trained teachers are commensurate with their level of professional competence; that the acceptance of these low rates of remuneration by the teachers, who are free economic agents, is indicative of their inability to find more lucrative employment given their level of education.

The uncontroversial conclusion is that it is unwise to be sanguine about low cost early childhood education delivered in the sub-region. Improvements in the level of education of the teachers and consequential improvements in their remuneration seem to be logical steps in attempts to improve the quality of education offered at this level.

Longitudinal research has shown that good early childhood education confers an advantage on those who receive it, which continues to manifest itself through primary and secondary schooling. New initiatives at this level must seek to reduce and remove the present inequities and disparities manifested by the current model. Investments at this level are likely to be more cost effective than remedial programmes at the secondary level. The current system of delivery of early childhood education does not ensure the equitable distribution of good quality education across the system.

Primary Education

Primary education is defined here as education for children between the ages of 5 and 12 years. The OECS has a history of primary education that is as long as that of many industrialized countries. By 1891 more than half the children of primary school age were enrolled in school. The sub-region has had free public primary education for nearly 100 years. Universal primary education was achieved by the 1960s.

Almost all countries in the sub-region have both public and private primary schools. The public system is by far the much larger sector. However, the private schools in almost all the countries cater to and have strong clients among the elite groups in the societies.

Public primary education in the sub-region is offered in two types of schools. Those schools providing education for children 5 to 12 years old, called primary schools, and those schools offering education to

children between the ages of 5 and 15 or 16 years. These latter schools are called All Age schools. Children between the ages of 12 to 15 or 16 years are said to be in the Senior or Junior Secondary Departments of these All Age schools.

The year groups of the primary schools are given different names in different countries. In St Lucia they are called Standards, in Grenada Juniors, in Dominica Grades and in B.V.I. classes. The definitions of these groups vary between countries hence one cannot be sure if Standard 5, Junior 5, Grade 5 and Primary 5 are the same stage of primary schooling.

In many countries the primary school plant provides less than optimum circumstances for learning. Several schools resemble nineteenth century factories: they are a single rectangular room sub-divided by chalkboards. Many schools lack staff rooms, libraries, adequate sanitary conveniences for staff and students, telephones and other modern equipment. In most instances the furniture in primary schools is not ergonomically suited to the children or to more modern pedagogic practices. The buildings are not easily accessed by physically handicapped children. In all the countries there is some overcrowding in urban centres and some under utilization of the physical plant in rural areas. Internal migration and differences in the residential and working location of parents account for most of these imbalances.

In Montserrat, B.V.I. and St Kitts and Nevis almost all children are promoted from primary to secondary school. In the other territories transfer from primary to secondary schools is based on performance in a Common Entrance Examination. Competition for secondary school places is very intense. The CEE therefore has a disproportionate impact on all aspects of primary schooling particularly in the upper grades. In those countries still retaining the CEE there has been considerable debate about its merits and demerits, particularly about the pressure placed on children sitting the examinations.

It should be noted that in all OECS countries children continue their education until age 15 or 16 years. In B.V.I., Montserrat and St Kitts and Nevis all children proceed from primary to secondary schools. In the other countries, following the CEE, some children are transferred to secondary schools while the others remain in All Age schools until the school leaving age is reached. In St Lucia some of the children not passing the CEE are transferred to Senior Primary Schools, which are All Age School without the primary grades.

While a start has been made in the provision of special education for disabled children the provisions for such children are still woefully inadequate in all countries. Special education facilities constitute one of the weaknesses of primary education in the sub-region.

Past reforms in primary education have centred mainly around the curriculum. As countries achieved Associated Statehood and in some cases independence, the curricula were revised to include more national and Caribbean content. Most countries embarked on curriculum reform. The most recent effort in this regard was the UWI/USAID Primary Education Project, 1979 to 1985, which developed curricula in English Language, Mathematics, Science and Social Studies.

Secondary Education

Secondary education is organized in different ways in the eight countries. Probably the broadest classification that can be made is on the basis of ownership: Government, Government assisted and private schools. Government assisted are privately owned schools to which Government makes significant contribution to their operation in return for adherence to some aspects of public policy. Private schools are owned, supported and operated without contribution or regulation from Government or required adherence to public education policies.

Secondary schooling culminates with the CXC and GCE examinations. Instruction is for five years. The last two years are usually guided almost entirely by the GCE or CXC syllabi in the various subjects.

Past reforms in secondary education could be summarized briefly as follows:

- The introduction of Common Entrance Examinations.
- The introduction of Junior Secondary Schools (three years).
- The conversion or integration of Junior Secondary Schools into five year schools.
- The introduction of Comprehensive Schools.
- Free secondary education in Government schools through the abolition of school fees in those schools.
- The establishment of universal secondary education in B.V.I., Montserrat and St Kitts and Nevis.

- The replacement of GCE with CXC.
- Diversification of the curriculum with emphasis on Technical and Vocational education.
- The introduction of Junior Secondary programmes in the top grades of All Age schools in some countries.
- Introduction of co-education.
- The establishment of Science fairs at the national and sub-region levels.

There are several several factors constraining secondary education in the sub-region. There is an insufficient number of adequately trained teachers. Most of the graduate teachers are untrained and those teachers who are professionally trained were trained for the primary level. Support services in the form of guidance and counselling, libraries, laboratories and workshops especially in rural schools are inadequate. The cost of textbooks is extremely high and parents complain of their inability to purchase them for their children. There is also a lack of articulation between the curriculum of the upper grades of primary and the lower grades of secondary and some disjunction between the latter and the CXC syllabi.

Tertiary and Adult Education

Tertiary education in the OECS presently covers the following areas:

- Sixth Form and First Year University.
- Teacher training.
- Nursing training.
- Agricultural Schools.
- Technical and Vocational Colleges.
- Continuing education for adults.

Tertiary education in the sub-region is currently in a state of transition from single discipline colleges focussed on each of the areas listed above to multi-disciplinary institutions that include all of these areas in a single college. The State College of Antigua and Barbuda and the Sir Arthur Lewis Community College have implemented this approach most successfully to date. Dominica, Grenada and St Kitts and Nevis have initiated action in the same direction while in St Vincent and the Grenadines and B.V.I. similar developments are still in the planning stages.

Teacher and Nursing training are the most widely developed capacity in tertiary education in the region. Only B.V.I. and Montserrat are without teachers' colleges. While technical colleges have been developed across the sub-region in many instances they function as technical high schools in that their students sit CXC and other examinations sat by secondary school students.

Continuing education programmes have traditionally been offered in the OECS mainly through the University Centres run by the School of Continuing Studies of the UWI. These take the form usually of GCE 'O' and 'A' level and CXC classes offered mainly in the evenings. Increasingly, tertiary institutions have become involved in delivering continuing education programmes.

The point to note about formal tertiary education in the OECS is that this level of the educational system is by far the smallest. The tertiary institutions themselves are small. Most of the single discipline colleges have less than 100 students enrolled. Only the Sir Arthur Lewis Community College has more than 1000 students enrolled and even then full-time and part-time students are aggregated. This level of education in the OECS does not currently enjoy economies of scale.

Generally speaking, while the colleges are small, the quality of their output has been considered good. Indications of this come from teacher education where the Faculty of Education, UWI, Cave Hill exercises a quality control function with respect to all the teachers' colleges in the OECS and Barbados. Analysis of these annual examinations shows that students of some colleges in the OECS, particularly those in St Kitts and Nevis and Antigua and Barbuda, perform as well as or better than students elsewhere.

Another indication of quality comes from the fact that the Sir Arthur Lewis Community College and the Antigua State College have been teaching first year programmes of the UWI. Performance of students in these colleges has compared very favourably with the performance of students on the three campuses of the University.

Relatively speaking, tertiary education is an underdeveloped area of education within the OECS. For a long time it was felt that the countries were too small to support indigenous institutions. Sending students abroad was thought to be the more economic proposition. While there are several areas in which it is unlikely that any single OECS country, or even the sub-region, could create the critical mass of students, teachers, support services and infra-structure necessary to provide good quality programmes, there are areas in which this can be done. The spin-offs from creating sub-regional tertiary education capacity in some areas go beyond the comparative costs of training of students. The critical issues reside in identifying the areas and the levels that are feasible and affordable within the OECS context.

Non-Formal Adult Education Projects and Programmes

There is a wide variety of projects, programmes and practice in the field of non-formal adult education within the OECS. In Grenada and St Lucia the Ministries of Education have taken an active role in organizing and delivering programmes in this area. Recently Grenada has sought to integrate its non-formal programmes run by the Ministry with the formal administration of its National College.

In several other countries non-formal adult education is offered on a project basis, through different government and non-government organizations. For example, USAID has funded a Youth Skills project in several countries. In some countries this project offering skills training to out of school youths is organized by the Ministry of Education, in other countries by the Ministry of Youth, or Community Affairs, or by the Economic Planning division of the Ministry of Finance.

In addition to Government, a variety of groups and agencies are involved in mounting such projects and programmes. These include churches, communities, trade unions, teachers' unions, voluntary agencies and service clubs. In large measure while the projects are numerous they are invariably small.

Adult education programmes offered in OECS countries can be listed briefly as follows:

- Literacy classes.
- Skills training related to particular industries.
- Craft training related to self employment.
- Issues related courses related to Drug Abuse and other health issues.
- Innovative programmes related to community development and social and national consciousness.

Probably two examples of innovative approaches to adult education could illustrate this latter category.

- a) The Movement for Cultural Awareness, MCA, in Dominica is a voluntary organization comprised mainly of young professionals. Their mission is to use popular theatre to address community problems with a view to mobilizing communities to address and resolve these problems as well as to promote awareness of local culture. The mode of operation is to identify a community problem, research it with inputs from the community, develop a story line, perform the play in the community, and then receive community reaction and feedback. From that exercise a community group is formed to address the problem.

MCA has been operating in Dominica since 1979. They have used their technique and approach to address a wide variety of community issues including work with the Farmers Union to teach farmers new agricultural practices. MCA is connected to a sub-regional network with affiliate organizations in Antigua, St Lucia, St Vincent and Grenada. The group has received support from Oxfam, HIVOS and the Cultural Department in Dominica.

- b) The National Association for Mass Education, NAME, in St Vincent and the Grenadines is an umbrella organization for community, trade union, teachers' union, voluntary organizations and service clubs offering adult education and non-formal programmes in St Vincent and the Grenadines. These organizations under NAME have focussed their activities mainly on preschools and second chance education for youths leaving school at age 15, some of whom are functionally illiterate. NAME affiliates currently operate numerous preschools, 22 adult centres offering literacy classes and 10 centres offering skills training. In addition, NAME affiliates have experimented with programmes to raise community consciousness, improve the environment, foster self confidence and civic responsibility. Some of the results obtained in changing habits and patterns in depressed communities have been quite spectacular.

The Legal Framework of Education in the OECS

The legislation governing education in the OECS is a mixed bag. Dominica and Montserrat continue to use legislation enacted in the 1950s. In the case of St Vincent and the Grenadines, while new legislation has been tabled in Parliament and is being considered, the legislation in force was enacted in 1937. Antigua and Barbuda, Grenada, St Lucia and St Kitts and Nevis use legislation enacted in the 1970s when Associated Statehood and political independence were part of the OECS constitutional realities.

Of the countries using modern acts, only Grenada has enacted new regulations to accompany the new laws. In Antigua, St Kitts and Nevis and St Lucia no new regulations have been enacted. The result is that many irrelevant and obsolete regulations from colonial times continue to be enforced. For example, in some countries a teacher needs permission to travel abroad, even on a week-end and even in vacation periods. Leaving without such permission is regarded by existing regulations as having "abandoned" one's post.

In surveying the legislations of those countries that have repealed the old colonial Ordinances and enacted modern legislation, Anthony (1991) noted that a remarkable feature of the laws is the near identical selection of subjects for legislative prescription. Anthony was of the view that there is abundant evidence to suggest that in drafting the respective laws, the islands borrowed from each other against a background of a common constitutional and political experience. He further noted that the structures of the education systems addressed by the laws were identical, so too were the gaps. With regard to the latter, gaps existed in the legislation with respect to tertiary, early childhood and non-formal education.

Anthony was of the view that with respect to both the areas specifically legislated and the areas omitted, the differences that do exist between the statutory bases of education of the eight countries of the OECS were not over "fundamentals". Rather the differences were more like variations on the same theme.

Anthony concluded that existing legislation governing education in the OECS, reflected a tendency to centralize decision making; to give Ministers immense power; to give limited room for consensus and partnership; and not to be easily accessible to teachers, students and parents. In his opinion, a new philosophy was necessary given the changed circumstances of the OECS and that there was an overwhelming case to be made for a common sub-regional approach to be adopted to the reform of educational legislation.

The Management and Administration of the Education System

The management and administration of the education system in OECS countries is organized on very similar lines. The main elements can be listed as follows:

- Usually education is part of a Ministry with at least one other portfolio.
- The Ministry is headed by the Minister, who is responsible for all aspects of education policy. In some countries the Minister is also given some executive powers and can direct all aspects of the affairs of the Ministry.
- The Ministry has two organizational components: the administrative and finance component headed by the Permanent Secretary and the technical component headed by the Chief Education Officer. In several situations the roles, responsibilities and powers of the Minister, the Permanent Secretary and the Chief Education Officer are not clearly separated. While the Minister and Permanent Secretary usually have roles, responsibilities and powers related to all the portfolios making up the Ministry, the area of operation of the Chief Education Officer is restricted to education.
- Depending on the size of the country and the size of the school population, the Chief Education Officer is assisted by several education officers. Most of the latter are usually involved in school inspection. In the larger countries there may be specialist units to deal with such areas as curriculum development, adult education or planning.

With the exception of St Lucia, teachers in the OECS are civil servants. They are therefore appointed by the Civil Service Commission. While the Commission may act on the advice of the Ministry of Education, the power to select, appoint and promote rests with the Commission. In St Lucia teachers are public servants appointed by the Teachers' Service Commission. The Ministry of Education has the same relationship to the Teachers' Service Commission as other Ministries have to the Civil Service Commission.

In the Windward Islands there is a dual system of school management where the Ministry administers the system in conjunction with Denominational Boards of Management in the case of schools owned by the

various church bodies. Government owned schools are managed directly by the Ministry of Education in conjunction with the principals of the schools. In the Leeward's the vast majority of the schools are Government owned and are run directly by the Ministry. The general principle is that Boards function in the management of private and assisted schools and colleges but not with respect to Government schools and colleges. Sir Arthur Lewis Community College in St Lucia is the exception to this general practice, the legislation enabling the functioning of the Government college specifies the establishment and operation of the College through a Board of Governors.

The involvement of parent/teachers and community groups with the operation of schools is largely on an informal basis. The growing tendency, however, is for such groups to become more intimately involved with the running of schools especially through fund-raising activities.

While the Education Act in Antigua permits the establishment of an Education Advisory Council, this has not yet been implemented. In Montserrat, however, a National Education Advisory Committee was established, in 1979, with broad based representation from parents, teachers, the churches, the private sector, the Ministry of Education and the University Centre. The Committee functions to permit participation in the policy making processes as well as to provide feedback on the operations of the education system.

Teachers

Teachers in the OECS fall into one of the following categories:

- Unqualified teachers who enter teaching without previous teacher training and without the qualifications required to enter teachers' college.
- Unqualified teachers who enter teaching without previous teacher training but are qualified to receive formal teacher training.
- Teachers professionally trained through teachers' colleges to teach in primary or secondary school.
- Technical and vocational teachers without teacher training.
- University graduates without teacher training.
- University graduates who are professionally trained as teachers.

Throughout the OECS, the Organization for Cooperation in Overseas Development, OCOD, has provided non-formal in-service teacher training for qualified and unqualified teachers. OCOD courses have included induction programmes for teachers entering the school system for the first time as well as in-service training in support of various development projects. These in-service courses are held mainly during the summer and are planned jointly by Ministries of Education and OCOD.

Table 1

Proportion of Primary School Teachers Trained: 1957-87

Country	1957	1976	1984-87	1990
Antigua Barbuda	40	59	80	74
B.V.I.	n/a	n/a	40	59
Dominica	9	10	44	43
Grenada	8	36	47	39
Montserrat	21	41	58	64
St Kitts-Nevis	20	42	72	64
St Lucia	6	28	53	61
St Vincent-Gren.	6	19	36	28

Source: Compiled from Walters (1969), Carrington (1980), Miller (1987) and Ministry of Education Statistical Reports 1989/90.

Table 1 shows the proportion of trained teachers employed in primary schools in a selected number of countries over the last 30 or so years. Table 1 shows that in 1957 no OECS country had as many as half of its primary school teachers trained. In the 20 year period between 1957 and 1976, while some progress was made, training levels in the primary school teaching force remained uncomfortably low. In other words the teacher training institutions were finding it hard to match the expansion of the system and reduce the proportion of untrained teachers at the same time.

In the decade or so since 1976 significant progress has been made in reducing the levels of untrained teachers in Antigua-Barbuda, St Lucia and St Kitts-Nevis. In Dominica, Grenada and St Vincent and the Grenadines the proportion of untrained teachers employed in primary schools remains unsatisfactory. Probably the most disturbing finding is that with the exception of B.V.I., St Lucia and Montserrat, a reversal has occurred in the late 1980s in the proportion of trained primary school teachers employed in the school systems. In Antigua-Barbuda, Dominica, St Kitts-Nevis, Grenada and St Vincent and the Grenadines the proportion of trained teachers in primary school has fallen between the mid-1980s and 1990.

Table 2

Secondary School Teachers: Academic and Professional Training : 1990

Country	Total Teachers	% Trained	% Graduate
Antigua-Barbuda	218	71.3	39.4
B.V.I.	85	80.0	65.0
Dominica	182	17.6	29.7
Grenada	304	78.3	31.9
Montserrat	74	58.0	51.2
St Kitts-Nevis	269	n/a	24.9
St Lucia	351	n/a	28.2
St Vincent/Grenadines	398	46.0	26.4

Source: Compiled from World Bank 1990: Long Term Economic Prospects. and Ministry of Education Statistical Reports 1989/90.

Table 2 shows that with the exception of B.V.I., Montserrat and Antigua and Barbuda the levels of academic and professional training of teachers in secondary schools are unsatisfactory. Only B.V.I., Antigua-Barbuda, Montserrat and Grenada have more than 30 per cent graduates among their secondary teaching force. In the case of Grenada most of the graduate teachers are non-Grenadians. Only 17.6 per cent of the secondary school teachers in Dominica are trained. Also it must be noted that the majority of trained teachers in the secondary schools were trained to teach at the primary level.

Table 3**Teacher-Pupil Ratios in Primary and Secondary Schools: 1990**

Country	PRIMARY Ratio	SECONDARY Ratio
Antigua-Barbuda	1:24	1:18
B.V.I.	1:20	1:14
Dominica	1:23	1:18
Grenada	1:26	1:20
Montserrat	1:18	1:11
St Kitts-Nevis	1:22	1:14
St Lucia	1:29	1:19
St Vincent-Gren.	1:19	1:18

Source: Ministry of Education Statistical Reports 1989/90.

Table 3 shows that teacher-pupil ratios at the primary level vary from 1:18 in Montserrat to 1:29 in St Lucia. At the secondary level the ratio varies from 1:11 in Montserrat to 1:20 in Grenada. These are very favourable ratios indeed and indicate that the school systems of the OECS are adequately staffed with teachers, even if the quality of academic and professional training may be inadequate as shown in the previous Tables. It is doubtful whether these very favourable ratios can be sustained in the long term. Any adjustment to increase these ratios, however, should be preceded by programmes to improve the academic and professional levels of the teachers.

The data from the Tables above would seem to indicate that generally speaking the level of academic and professional training of teachers in the OECS is far from ideal. The situation, however, is not uniform. The schools of B.V.I., Antigua and Barbuda and Montserrat are currently staffed with a higher proportion of qualified teachers than schools in the rest of the OECS. On the other hand St Vincent and the Grenadines employ large numbers of unqualified teachers in both the primary and secondary schools.

Teachers' salaries vary significantly in the sub-region. The maximum salary of a trained graduate teacher in the various countries is shown in Table 4 along with the direct personal tax rates for those countries.

Table 4**Maximum Salary of a Trained Graduate Teacher: 1991**

Country	Salary E.C. \$	Income Tax rate
Antigua-Barbuda	30,948	Nil
B.V.I.	55,372	12.5 per cent
Dominica	28,844	12 per cent
Grenada	21,972	10 per cent
Montserrat	36,384	30 per cent
St Kitts-Nevis	37,560	Nil
St Lucia	31,814	30 per cent
St Vincent-Grenadines	26,784	15-20 per cent

Source: Ministry of Education 1991

No attempt is made here to take into account the relative cost of living in the different countries, hence any comparison must of necessity be crude. However, it would appear from Table 4 that the remuneration

of teachers vary significantly throughout the sub-region. The maximum salary of a trained graduate in the British Virgin Islands is more than twice that of the same teacher in Grenada and St Vincent and the Grenadines.

Many areas of both the private and public sectors in the OECS are staffed by former teachers. It is not unfair to say that the teaching profession is an occupation from which the rest of the civil service and private sector recruit middle management personnel. Higher salaries and greater promotion prospects are among the reasons for teachers moving into these other areas.

The main point to note about the movement of teachers is that it is mainly the trained teachers that are recruited elsewhere and among the trained teachers it is mainly the most experienced. The teaching force and the schools are constantly losing some of the persons who are likely to have reached their most productive period in the profession. The impact of this for the quality of education is still to be assessed.

The Financing of Education

In all countries of the OECS public primary education is free. Fees are charged at the preschool level, including Government pre-schools. Government secondary schools are free. However, in some countries Government assisted schools charge fees in addition to receiving grants from the Government. In St Vincent and the Grenadines, Government controls the fees charged by assisted schools. Nominal fees are charged at the tertiary level in some programmes. Government bears most of the costs.

Table 5 shows the level of public financing of education in OECS countries in terms of the proportion of GDP and total Government recurrent expenditure spent on education.

Table 5

Country	<u>Public Financing of Education</u>	
	Proportion GDP 1987	Proportion Total Recurrent Exp. 1990
Antigua-Barbuda	3.8	14.3
B.V.I.	N/A	14.2
Dominica	6.0	19.0
Grenada	6.3	19.0
Montserrat	N/A	18.1
St Kitts-Nevis	4.4	16.8
St Lucia	8.5	23.0
St Vincent-Grenadines	7.0	17.9

Source: Compiled from World Bank 1990: Long Term Economic Prospects and Ministry of Education Estimates 1989/1990.

Table 5 shows that Governments spent between 3.8 to 8.5 per cent of GDP on education in 1987 and between 14.2 and 23.0 per cent of total recurrent expenditure on education in 1989/90. Judging from these, budgetary estimates of Antigua-Barbuda and B.V.I. appear on the low side of Caribbean averages. The expenditures of St Kitts-Nevis, Montserrat, St Vincent and the Grenadines, Dominica and Grenada appear within the range standard for the region, while that of St Lucia was relatively high.

It should be noted, however, that in several countries, for example St Kitts-Nevis and St Vincent and the Grenadines, funds for scholarships and the payment of UWI costs are shown under the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and not Education. If adjustments are made for these different ways of recording expenditure on education it may be that the variations between the countries may be much less than the Ministry of Education estimates indicate. It would appear that with the exception of Antigua and Barbuda and B.V.I., most OECS Governments may be spending about 20 per cent of their total recurrent expenditure on education annually.

Table 6

Per Student Costs in Current E.C. Dollars

Country	Year	Primary	Secondary	Post-Secondary
Antigua-Barbuda	1987	900	2200	5300
B.V.I.	1988	2268	4376	—
Dominica	1989	761	1219	7057
Grenada	1990	552	880	3346
Montserrat	1990	1480	2388	7383
St Kitts-Nevis	1990	697	1254	4902
St Lucia	1990	757	1697	7064
St Vincent-Gren.	1990	635	782	3553

Source: Compiled from Ministry of Education Estimates 1989/90.

Table 6 shows that there are significant differences in unit costs at all levels among the different OECS countries. At the primary and secondary levels costs are highest in B.V.I. and Montserrat and lowest in Grenada and St Vincent and the Grenadines. At the tertiary level costs are highest in Montserrat, St Lucia and Dominica and lowest in Grenada and St Vincent and the Grenadines. Overall unit costs are lower in Grenada and St Vincent and the Grenadines. This may be reflective of generally lower costs in those countries. Since teachers' salaries account for between 85 to 90 per cent of education costs, it could well be that these differences between unit costs may be indicative of salary differentials between the countries.

Table 7

Budget Allocation to the Different Levels of Education: 1989/90

Country	Primary %	Secondary %	Tertiary %	Other %
Antigua-Barbuda	29.8	31.3	7.7	31.4
B.V.I.	36.9	40.7	—	22.4
Dominica	59.7	22.2	7.3	10.7
Grenada	48.8	23.5	10.7	17.7
Montserrat	38.0	52.0	10.0	—
St Kitts-Nevis	33.0*	33.5*	15.0	13.5
St Lucia	54.2	25.3	11.4	9.1
St Vincent-Gren.	67.6	23.0	4.4	5.0

Source: Ministry of Ed. Budget Estimates for Education 1989/90.

* Estimated from Aggregate Estimates.

The highest proportion of the education Budget in almost all countries goes to primary education. The only exceptions to this general pattern are Montserrat and B.V.I. In this regard St Vincent and the Grenadines allocates the highest proportion to primary education. In the case of secondary education Montserrat allocates the highest and St Vincent and the Grenadines the lowest. The point to note is that the three countries providing universal secondary education - B.V.I., Montserrat and St Kitts-Nevis - have a different pattern of allocation of their education budgets from the countries that are not providing universal secondary education.

In all countries a relatively small proportion of the budget is allocated to tertiary education. The highest proportion allocated to tertiary education is by St Kitts and Nevis. St Vincent and the Grenadines allocates the lowest proportion of its budget to tertiary education, only 4.4 per cent.

Access and Equity

It is important to examine the provision of education in the OECS from the perspectives of access and equity. The most economic approach is to examine standard quantitative indicators.

Table 8 shows enrollment rates in primary schools in OECS countries over the period 1900 to 1987.

Table 8

Primary Enrollment Rates of OECS Countries: 1900-1987

Countries	1900	1910	1920	1930	1935-40	1980-87
Grenada	63	61	59	60	66	99
Leeward Is*	32	42	37	56	—	98
St Lucia	52	64	53	73	59	90
St Vincent	54	46	35	57	68	97

Source: Compiled from Benavot and Riddle (1988) and UNESCO Statistical Yearbook (1988). * Dominica is classified here as one of the Leeward Islands.

Table 8 shows that since 1940 there has been spectacular increase in primary school enrollment in OECS countries. It should be noted that the enrollment rates in the OECS have always been comparable with the highest rates in the Caribbean and indeed in the rest of the world. The period 1900 to 1930 was not marked by spectacular growth in school enrollment. While enrollment in some countries grew modestly in the Leeward Islands and St Lucia, in Grenada and St. Vincent there was actual decline.

In looking back on the history of education, it can be seen that this was not accidental. At the turn of the century, the colonial power reduced or capped expenditure on education, vocationalized primary education to support agriculture and domestic services and reduced teacher training. Public participation in the school system declined in direct response to these measures.

The period 1940 to the present has been one of substantial increase in enrollment in all countries. These increases came mainly after representative Government was introduced in the OECS countries in the 1950s. By the 1980s all OECS countries had primary school enrollment rates of over 90 per cent of the school age population.

The improvement in enrollment after the 1940s has also to be understood against the background of significant population increase during the period. School enrollment increases not only overtook the under-provision of the past, but also overtook population increases as well. The gains in school enrollment in these circumstances are truly impressive.

Table 9

Primary School Enrollment by Gender: 1980s

Country	Year	Male		Female		Total N
		N	%	N	%	
Antigua-Barbuda	1983	6118	53.7	5276	46.4	11394
B.V.I.	1989	1048	54.2	885	45.8	1933
Dominica	1989	7565	52.3	6903	47.7	14468
Grenada	1989	10670	52.8	9537	47.2	20407
Montserrat	1990	787	52.3	718	47.7	1505
St Kitts-Nevis	1989	3835	51.2	3645	48.8	7480
St Lucia	1989	16810	51.4	15839	48.6	32649
St Vincent-Gren.	1990	13316	51.0	12773	49.0	26089

Source: Ministry of Education Statistical Reports 1989 and 1990.
UNESCO Statistical Yearbook 1988.

Table 9 shows that in all countries more than 50 per cent of the children enrolled in primary schools are boys. The range is from 54.2 per cent boys in B.V.I. to 51.0 per cent in St Vincent and the Grenadines. These data have to be interpreted and understood in relation to the demographic characteristics of Caribbean populations. Over the last century or more, slightly more boys are born than girls. Consequently there are more boys in the population from birth to 14 years. That there are slightly more boys enrolled than girls does not necessarily mean that there is any disparity between the genders.

Table 10

The Provision of Secondary Schooling: 1990

Country	Enrollment in Secondary Sch.	Enrollment/ 12-17 years Cohort	Cohort %
Antigua-Barbuda	3815	n/a	n/a
B.V.I.	1113	1560	71.3
Dominica	3275	9822	33.3
Grenada	7006	11619	60.3
Montserrat	863	1169	73.8
St Kitts-Nevis	4032	5235	77.0
St Lucia	6771	21168	32.0
St Vincent-Gren.	6928	16756	41.3

Source: Calculated and compiled from Ministry of Education Statistics 1989/90 and Harewood (1991) Medium Variant Projections.

Table 10 shows that in 1990 St Kitts-Nevis, Montserrat and the British Virgin Islands offered more than 70 per cent of the 12 to 17 years olds in their population 5 years of secondary schooling in institutions designated to provide such education. These territories all have compulsory education for students up to age 16 years. It should also be noted that not all children in these territories are transferred to secondary schools at age 12. Some are retained in primary schools until they have attained certain prescribed standards.

Dominica, St Lucia and St Vincent and the Grenadines offer less than 50 per cent of 12 to 17 years olds 5 years of secondary education. Grenada falls between this latter group and the former group identified in the

previous paragraph. It should be noted that Grenada's secondary school provisions have expanded significantly over the decade of the 1980s.

Table 11

Public Secondary School Enrollment by Gender: 1989

Country		Male		Female		Total N
		N	%	N	%	
Antigua-Barbuda	1989	1372	42.1	1889	57.9	3261
B.V.I.	1989	557	49.2	574	50.8	1113
Dominica	1989	1297	39.6	1978	60.4	3275
Grenada	1989	2889	41.2	4017	58.8	7006
Montserrat	1989	393	45.5	470	54.5	863
St Kitts-Nevis	1989	2016	50.2	1982	49.8	3998
St Lucia	1989	2962	43.7	3809	56.3	6771
St Vincent-Gren.	1989	2792	40.3	4136	59.7	6728

Source: Ministry of Education Statistical Reports.

Table 11 shows that except for St Kitts-Nevis and B.V.I. where gender equity prevails, there are more girls than boys enrolled in public secondary schools. This is the same pattern that prevails in private secondary schools where these exist. Secondary school enrollment in most OECS countries is biased in favour of girls.

St Kitts-Nevis and B.V.I. put almost all students in secondary schools without selection, hence gender equity in these countries may be related to this factor. The point to note is that although Montserrat does the same, there is some gender disparity. Montserrat made the change from selection to automatic promotion in 1986; it could be that this change has not had the time to work itself through the system to effect gender equity. All the countries employing selection through common entrance examinations show marked biases in favour of girls.

It could well be that the gender biases of the countries having universal secondary education are masked. This observation is underscored when entries to CXC examinations are inspected. These are shown in Table 12 below.

Table 12

Entries to CXC by Gender and Country: 1988-1990

Country	Male	Female
	%	%
Antigua-Barbuda	40.7	59.3
B.V.I.	30.2	69.8
Dominica	31.5	68.5
Grenada	41.1	58.9
Montserrat	29.8	70.2
St Kitts-Nevis	38.1	61.9
St Lucia	30.4	69.6
St Vincent-Grenadines	35.3	64.7

Source: Compiled from Report on Administration of 1990 Examinations.

Table 12 shows that all territories entered more girls than boys in CXC examinations over the period 1988 to 1990. In Table 11 it was noted that gender equity existed in enrollment in secondary schools in St Kitts-Nevis.

However, this gender equity in enrollment is not reflected in the selection of students to take the CXC examinations. Like the rest of the OECS and other Commonwealth Caribbean countries, more girls than boys are entered for these examinations.

Table 13 shows the school population, in the several countries, by the proportion enrolled at each of the four levels of the systems.

Table 13

Enrollment by Four Levels of Education.

Country	Primary	Senior Primary	Secondary	Post-Secondary
Antigua-Barbuda	60.6	11.5	26.0	1.9
B.V.I.	63.0	—	37.0	—
Dominica	61.6	20.2	16.6	1.6
Grenada	64.8	10.2	22.8	2.2
Montserrat	62.2	—	35.6	2.2
St Kitts-Nevis	56.3	4.6	37.5	1.6
St Lucia	65.5	17.8	15.3	1.4
St Vincent-Gren.	59.9	17.6	20.2	2.3

Source: World Bank 1990: Long Term Economic Prospects: O.E.C.S.

Table 13 shows that the majority of students enrolled in the school systems of the countries are enrolled at the primary level. Primary and senior primary students account for between 62.2 and 80 per cent of all students enrolled in educational institutions except in St Kitts-Nevis where they account for 60.9 per cent of enrollment. At the secondary level, the Leewards, B.V.I., St Kitts-Nevis, Montserrat and Antigua-Barbuda have higher proportions of students enrolled than the Windward Islands. In all countries post-secondary enrollment is minuscule, 2.3 per cent or less.

When these quantitative indicators of access and equity are examined the general picture revealed can be summarized as follows:

- In the OECS children have very close to universal access to primary education in all countries.
- There are no marked gender inequities at the primary level.
- Three countries have universal secondary education and therefore have a relatively higher proportion of their school enrollment at this level.
- Girls seem to be at an advantage and boys at a disadvantage in gaining access to secondary education especially where selection is employed. But even where promotion is automatic, boys seem to be at a disadvantage in being entered for CXC examinations. In this regard the OECS, like other Caribbean countries, are different from most other developing countries.
- Relatively little opportunity for tertiary education is provided in the OECS.

Efficiency and Wastage

The efficiency of education systems is usually assessed in relation to such quantitative indicators as repetition and promotion rates, and drop out and completion rates within the specific time prescribed for primary education. In recent decades these measures have not attracted a great deal of attention in OECS countries largely because there is no perception that these are problematic areas of the education systems. Such data as do exist would seem to support this general perception.

For example, in Grenada where some concern has been expressed about wastage in the education system it was found that for the school year 1986-87 only 243 students or 1.2 per cent of the primary school population dropped out of school. Repetition varied between grades from 9.3 to 12.5 per cent. The highest repetition occurred in the upper grades. This led to a situation where 19 per cent of 13 year olds, 10 per cent

of 14 year olds and 4 per cent of 15 year olds were still in primary grades. The drop outs from primary school came mainly from these older students.

Generally speaking not only are almost all children of primary school age enrolled in school, but they attend regularly, are promoted from one grade to the next, remain in school until the prescribed age and the vast majority complete primary schooling in the specified time.

Secondary education is not as efficient as primary schooling. Again using the case of Grenada, 16.7 per cent of the students repeated years in 1984-85, especially in the First and Second Forms. Four per cent of the students dropped out of school in that same year. In other words, both repetition and drop out rates were higher in secondary than in primary schools. While comparable statistics were not always available, Ministry officials in the several countries commonly reported this pattern. In St Vincent and the Grenadines it was shown, for example, that while 65 per cent of the students completed secondary schooling in the prescribed time, 85 per cent of primary students completed primary schooling in the specified time.

It would appear therefore that while primary schooling in the sub-region is operating relatively efficiently, there is cause for concern about the level of efficiency of secondary schooling although the level of inefficiency is not alarming.

Quality and Effectiveness

Indicators of the quality of education systems are usually judged from performance of students in examinations testing cognitive growth and competencies. At the primary level there are currently no examinations which test the level of achievement of students. The common entrance examinations are selection tests geared to the number of places available at the secondary level in certain preferred schools. The results are often, but erroneously, used to indicate the quality of performance at the primary level. That error will not be repeated here.

In St Kitts and Nevis tests of standards are used to assess students' performance in the top grades of the primary schools. In B.V.I. the Primary 5 examinations are based on criterion reference tests which presume to measure how well students have mastered basic functional knowledge and skills taught at the primary level. Montserrat uses a combination of Ministry tests and teacher made tests to attempt to assess the performance standards at the end of primary schooling. However, none of these innovative approaches employ any standardized instruments developed locally or imported from elsewhere. This makes comparisons very difficult and it also severely limits any conclusions about the standard of primary education in the sub-region.

In the absence of standardized achievement test results, literacy levels of the adult population are usually a good indicator of achievement at the primary level. Again there have been very few surveys conducted in this field in the OECS. Again there is an absence of objective data.

It is only at the secondary level, in relationship to the GCE and CXC examinations, that one can find objective measures of achievement. In seeking therefore to arrive at some assessment of the quality and effectiveness of education in the sub-region an analysis of the performance of OECS students in the CXC examinations will be undertaken. The performance of OECS students will be compared with students from the rest of the Commonwealth Caribbean.

CXC commenced operations in 1979 when it offered four subjects. Since then CXC has expanded its subject offerings to 32, and has almost completely replaced the GCE 'O' levels. The decade of the 1980s, especially the early years, needs to be understood as one of transition from GCE to CXC.

Table 14 below shows this transition. It reports the candidates entered in 1984 and 1990, the total number of subjects they sat and average number of subjects entered per candidate from the several Commonwealth Caribbean countries.

Table 14

CXC Entries - Candidates and Subjects: 1984 and 1990 Compared

Country	Candidates		Subjects		Subjects/Candid.	
	1984	1990	1984	1990	1984	1990
Antigua-Barbuda	416	717	1062	2492	2.55	3.48
Barbados	3390	5358	13851	19653	3.47	3.68
Belize	923	1555	2850	5736	3.09	3.69
B.V.I.	138	182	477	806	3.46	4.43
Dominica	498	981	1647	4064	3.31	4.14
Grenada	463	1494	1030	5265	2.22	3.52
Guyana	5089	5822	16480	23956	3.24	4.11
Jamaica	18035	24566	61609	88825	3.42	3.62
Montserrat	82	121	273	536	3.33	4.43
St Kitts-Nevis	322	620	1080	3000	3.35	4.84
St Lucia	742	1849	2941	8362	3.96	4.52
St Vincent-Gr.	733	1608	2425	5032	3.31	3.13
Trinidad-Tob.	27177	28296	105057	111288	3.87	3.93

Source: CXC Administrative Reports for 1984 and 1990.

One inference that could be drawn from Table 14 is that the larger countries - Barbados, Jamaica, Guyana and Trinidad and Tobago - probably made an earlier transition to CXC than the OECS countries. This is supported by other data related to the number of subjects being entered by schools and students in the different territories. Notwithstanding their later transition, the increases in OECS entries to CXC since 1984 have been impressive: Grenada 222.7 per cent, St Lucia 149.2 per cent, St Vincent and the Grenadines 119.4 per cent, St Kitts and Nevis 92.5 per cent and Dominica 84.3 per cent.

Probably of greater significance to this analysis is that fact in 1990 OECS countries led the region in average number of subjects entered per candidate. St Kitts and Nevis candidates entered on average 4.8 subjects, St Lucian candidates 4.5, Montserrat and B.V.I. candidates 4.4 and Dominican candidates 4.1. These five OECS countries led the region in the average number of subjects entered. On average students outside the OECS have been entering less subjects in CXC. The only exception to this general pattern was candidates from St Vincent and the Grenadines.

Table 15 attempts to give a crude estimate of the proportion of the age cohort entering the CXC examinations in 1990 in the several countries. Candidates 19 years and older are assumed to be private candidates and are excluded from the calculations. CXC entries are then divided by the 16 to 18 year groups in the population as projected by Harewood (1991).

Table 15

Proportion of the 16-18 Age Cohort Entering CXC in 1990.

Country	Candidates	16-18 Cohort	Per Cent
Antigua-Barbuda	533	n/a	n/a
Barbados	4340	14500	29.93
Belize	1004	12183	8.24
B.V.I.	120	802	14.96
Dominica	489	5535	8.83
Grenada	825	6112	13.50
Guyana	5185	64000	8.10
Jamaica	16591	164400	10.12
Montserrat	80	706	11.33
St Kitts-Nevis	470	2577	18.24
St Lucia	1099	10470	10.50
St Vincent-Gren.	616	8514	7.24
Trinidad-Tobago	20761	70200	29.57

Source: Compiled from CXC Administrative Report 1990 and Harewood (1991).

Table 15 shows that Barbados, Trinidad and Tobago, St Kitts and Nevis, British Virgin Islands and Grenada enter the largest proportion of the 16 to 18 years age cohort in the CXC examinations. It should be noted that these countries enroll 60 per cent or more of their 12 to 17 age cohort in five years of secondary schooling. The point to note is that while the absolute size of the CXC entries of the OECS countries is small, proportionately, the proportion relative to the population is well within the range of entries from the other Commonwealth Caribbean countries. Only Barbados and Trinidad and Tobago are clearly ahead of OECS countries in this regard.

To get some index of the quality of the performance of the students from the different countries in the CXC it was felt that the most appropriate measure would be to ascertain all subjects entered in the General Proficiency by all candidates from a particular country and to determine the number of subjects obtained at General Proficiency I and II. The 15 countries of the Commonwealth Caribbean were then ranked for each of the years from 1984 to 1990 based on the proportion of all subjects obtained at General Proficiency I and II. By aggregating the ranks obtained by each of the 15 countries in the years between 1984 and 1990, some indication can be given of the relative performance of students from the different countries over the seven year period. Table 16 shows the results of this comparison. (See Appendix D for details of the yearly performance.)

Table 16

The Relative Ranking of Student Performance in CXC: 1984-1990

Country	Rank
Montserrat	1
St Kitts-Nevis	2
B.V.I.	3
Barbados	4
St Vincent-Grenadines	5
Belize	6
St Lucia	7
Antigua-Barbuda	8
Dominica	9
Anguilla	10
Turks and Caicos	11
Trinidad and Tobago	12
Grenada	13
Jamaica	14
Guyana	15

Source: Compiled from the CXC Administrative Reports 1984-1990.

Table 16 shows that over the seven year period 1984 to 1990 school candidates from Montserrat, St Kitts-Nevis, B.V.I., Barbados and St Vincent and the Grenadines performed consistently better than students from the rest of the Commonwealth Caribbean. In other words four of the five top country performances were from the OECS. Only Grenada's performance fell in the bottom third. Students from OECS schools performed, on the whole, favourably compared to the rest of the region.

Table 17 showing the performance in English Language - the most widely taken subject - further illustrates the pattern.

Table 17

English A General Proficiency Levels I and II:1988-1990

Country	1988	1989	1990
Anguilla	27.0	19.0	21.2
Antigua-Barbuda	54.4	51.3	39.1
Barbados	59.5	47.5	50.8
Belize	33.1	29.9	37.3
B.V.I.	75.0	71.4	71.4
Dominica	30.9	34.2	38.8
Grenada	28.2	22.3	17.6
Guyana	11.7	12.1	13.4
Jamaica	32.1	27.3	28.8
Montserrat	88.4	67.4	62.5
St Kitts-Nevis	51.3	43.4	52.9
St Lucia	45.3	52.8	36.9
St Vincent	43.4	41.2	32.8
Trinidad-Tobago	38.1	39.0	28.5
Turks and Caicos	36.7	35.7	11.9

Source: Compiled from Reports on Administration of Examinations.

Table 17 shows that in the English Language examination of CXC, over the three year period 1988 to 1990, apart from Grenada, students from OECS countries have performed at or above the average pass levels when compared with students from the rest of the region. Only in Grenada could the performance of students be said to be consistently below the regional average. Among the Commonwealth Caribbean countries the best results each year have come from students from an OECS country: British Virgin Islands or Montserrat.

A most important point to note is that four of the top five countries, in CXC performance between 1984 and 1990, currently offer their students universal secondary education. Montserrat, St Kitts-Nevis, B.V.I. and Barbados lead the Commonwealth Caribbean in their provision of secondary education. Not only do these countries offer universal access to secondary education but they are among the countries entering the highest proportions of the age cohorts in the CXC, as shown in Table 15. At the same time they top the region in the quality of the performance of their students in CXC. The only country practicing rigid selection that is among the top five countries is St Vincent and the Grenadines.

The general assumption, that is widely accepted, is that only an intellectual elite can successfully take CXC. The performance of St Kitts-Nevis, B.V.I. and Barbados in the CXC challenges this assumption. (It could be argued that because Montserrat only introduced universal secondary education in 1986, the results to 1990 would not reflect the impact of this policy. It should be noted that even before 1986 Montserrat was putting a high proportion of its students through secondary education.) When a statistical analysis was done correlating the examination results and the proportion of age cohort entered in CXC by the various countries, it was found that although the correlation was positive it was not significant.

This finding would seem to suggest that expanding access to secondary schooling and to the CXC examination does not necessarily mean a deterioration in performance when compared to circumstances of greater selectivity of students. The opposite is also true: increasing access is not automatically associated with improved quality, although this has occurred in some instances. Further study is needed to determine the critical and dynamic factors that operate in circumstances of increasing access and improving quality.

When the CXC results are examined closely it can be seen that different OECS countries have definite strengths and weaknesses. A few illustrations should be sufficient to establish this point. British Virgin Island students consistently perform well in English Language, Mathematics, Office Procedure, Principles of Accounts and Food and Nutrition, but perform consistently poorly in Biology, Physics and Chemistry. Students from St Kitts and Nevis perform consistently well in English Literature, Agriculture and Typewriting but poorly in Clothing and Textiles. Dominican students perform well in Agriculture but consistently poorly in Spanish. These patterns would seem to indicate pockets of expertise and weakness in teaching different subjects in different countries. (See Appendix D.)

While the regional comparisons put the several OECS countries in a favourable light there are a number of disturbing features shared with the rest of the Commonwealth Caribbean. For example, in St Kitts and Nevis and B.V.I. that put the highest proportion of children through secondary schooling and enter the largest proportion of the age cohort in the CXC, only 40 to 50 per cent actually go through to the CXC. While this is an outstanding achievement, it means that 50 to 60 per cent of the children are not entered for the CXC. Despite the relatively high rate of success of those entered in the examinations, the vast majority of students will leave secondary school without any education credentials.

Mr Eustace Hill, of Antigua and Barbuda's Ministry of Education, analyzing Antigua and Barbuda's 1990 CXC results showed that of the 576 school candidates entered, 45.3 per cent passed four or more subjects at General Proficiency I and II. But these 576 candidates were entered from a school population of 700 of that year group. When the CXC passes are calculated against this year group, 36.8 per cent obtained four or more passes at the CXC. However, the school year group is part of an even larger general population. Hence against that cohort, certainly less than one third had four or more CXC passes. While this quality of performance is better than most countries in the Commonwealth Caribbean, it underscores the fact that the majority of students do not receive the coveted credentials that are passports to jobs and further education opportunities.

Table 18 shows the proportion of the population 15 years and over with six or more years of formal schooling.

Table 18

Population 15 Years and Over with 6 Years and More of Schooling: 1980

Country	Male	Female	Total
B.V.I.	88.9	90.5	89.7
Dominica	82.9	84.4	83.7
Grenada	87.4	86.9	87.2
Montserrat	91.2	90.3	90.8
St Kitts-Nevis	92.1	92.5	92.3
St Lucia	80.4	81.5	80.9
St Vincent-Grenadines	87.8	89.2	88.5

Source: Compiled from data from the 1980-81 Censuses.

Table 18 shows that in all OECS countries more than 80 per cent of the adult population in 1980 had six or more years of formal education. The population of St Kitts-Nevis had the highest proportion with 92.3 per cent of people of 15 or more years having had six or more years of formal schooling. The St Kitts-Nevis and Montserrat proportions of more than 90 per cent are among the highest in the entire Caribbean region and rank with the best in the industrialized world. The census data reported in Table 18 corroborate the enrollment data that indicate good coverage at the primary level in the sub-region.

Table 19

Education of the Labour Force: 1980-81

Highest Level Attained	Grenada	St Vincent	St Kitts	St Lucia	Dominica
None	1.1	1.2	0.9	10.3	4.9
Primary	82.4	83.1	22.0	72.2	78.5
Secondary	13.7	13.0	74.4	12.2	13.0
University	1.1	1.0	1.5	0.9	1.3
Other	1.0	1.3	0.9	3.6	1.8
Not Stated	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.7	0.5
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Compiled from 1980/81 Population Census. Population aged 15-64 not attending primary or secondary schools.

Table 19 shows that apart from St Lucia more than 95 per cent of the adult population reported having received some schooling and obtained a primary education or better. Apart from St Kitts-Nevis the vast majority of the population only had primary schooling: just about 12 to 14 per cent had secondary schooling. In all the countries persons with university degrees constituted between 1.0 to 1.5 per cent of the labour force. The data in Table 19 are consistent with the enrollment statistics and the structure of the education systems in the countries.

Overall Assessment

When all of the quantitative indicators are examined, several conclusions can be reached about education in the OECS countries. These can be summarized briefly as follows:

1. There is very good coverage at the primary level. Universal primary education exists and almost all of the population are in receipt of at least six years of primary schooling. Gender equity exists in access to, and participation in, primary education. The greatest challenge exists in making more adequate and appropriate provisions for children handicapped by various disabilities.
2. While there have been improvements in access to secondary schooling during the 1980s, provisions vary widely in the sub-region. B.V.I., Montserrat and St Kitts-Nevis offer universal secondary education. Grenada and possibly Antigua and Barbuda offer secondary schooling to more than half the school age population. In Dominica, St Lucia and St Vincent and the Grenadines access to secondary schooling is highly restricted and limited to the school places available. More girls than boys have been in receipt of secondary education and have been entered for the CXC examinations.
3. The provision of tertiary education is out of step with the rest of the education system. Coverage at the tertiary level is poor. Universal primary education and mass secondary schooling culminate in minuscule opportunities at the tertiary level.
4. Teacher-pupil ratios at both the primary and secondary levels are favourable. The schools are adequately supplied with teachers. However, except for Antigua-Barbuda, Montserrat and St Kitts-Nevis, high proportions of unqualified teachers man the primary schools. With the exception of B.V.I., Montserrat and possibly Antigua and Barbuda, the proportions of graduate teachers staffing secondary schools is uncomfortably low. In several countries the secondary schools are manned by high proportions of unqualified teachers. In all countries most of the qualified teachers teaching in secondary schools were trained as primary school teachers. Teacher training levels of secondary school teachers in the region need to be significantly improved.
5. The primary schools systems are efficient in terms of the rate of promotion from one grade to the next, the drop out rate and the rate of completion of primary schooling in the prescribed time. The vast majority of students entering primary schools are promoted annually, remain in school and complete the primary cycle in the minimum time allowed. From the limited data available, literacy levels of the adult population appear reasonably good, except in St Lucia and to a lesser extent in Dominica.
6. The secondary schools are not as efficient as the primary schools. There is a high degree of wastage in terms of the proportion of students who fail to achieve the prescribed standards in the GCE and CXC examinations in some countries, particularly Grenada. However, four countries - Montserrat, St Kitts-Nevis, B.V.I. and St Vincent and the Grenadines - have performed, over the last seven years, as well as the best in the rest of the Commonwealth Caribbean.
7. While the OECS sub-region may compare favourably with the rest of the Commonwealth Caribbean in terms of quality and effectiveness of primary and secondary schooling as measured by CXC examinations results, caution must be exercised in generalizing about these findings. Given the shortage of instructional materials, the high proportion of unqualified teachers, poor learning environments in many schools, it may well be that the examination results may mask poor quality on cognitive dimensions not measured by paper and pencil tests, and on important non-cognitive attributes.
8. Educational costs in the sub-region appear modest and effective, particularly at the primary level. Government expenditures on education are at reasonable levels. While there is room for improvement in the proportion of Government resources allocated to education, St Lucia may have reached to the point where it is not reasonable to expect additional outlays on education unless there are additional inflows in Government revenue.
9. Disparities exist between countries in several of the quantitative measures. Caution therefore must be exercised in proposing reform measures as these must take account of these variations between countries.
10. While the available data on primary education in the sub-region suggest a rather optimistic interpretation of the relative efficiency of primary schools systems, it must be acknowledged that these data are uneven and incomplete. Bearing in mind that large economies could be derived from even slight improvements in efficiency, improvements need to occur in the systematic collection and analysis of data on the school systems of the OECS.

The reform strategies in education must take account of these strengths and weaknesses of the existing systems in the sub-region.

Chapter 4

The Developmental Imperatives Shaping OECS Education

In approaching educational reform in the OECS countries it is necessary to identify the major political, economic, social, demographic and cultural imperatives that are currently at work in the sub-region. By matching these against the previous history of the sub-region, and the present state of education, it should be possible to plot a future course for education.

1. Political Imperatives

In examining the political considerations related to education in OECS countries, there are four inter-related contemporary aspects that need to be discussed.

1. Political union is a major item on the agenda of OECS countries whether the sentiments of the discussants are for or against. Several factors have contributed to this situation. Historically, these countries, during the colonial period, were almost always part of some federal structure, labeled Leeward or Windward Islands. The demise of the West Indies Federation first interrupted the federal history of the sub-region and subsequently the sovereign status of six of the eight countries initially created another disruption. However, the small sizes of the countries, their proximity and common historical and cultural heritage dictate functional cooperation in several fields. This can be illustrated by several examples.

First, it is both impractical and expensive to interact with the rest of the world as six different countries. The same holds true for the rest of the world relating to the six countries through bilateral and multilateral agencies. Second, marketing arrangements, for imports and exports, for most of the goods and services, are more efficiently organized through collaborative ventures. Third, the events in Grenada related to the revolution and the intervention raised the issue of the security of all of these states. Fourth, the success of enduring monetary union in the sub-region has provided

strong testimony for the efficacy and advantages of cooperation between the countries.

The establishment of the Organization of Eastern Caribbean States, supported by a Secretariat, created a form of political union. It testified to the felt need for sub-regional cooperation. Under the Central Authority of the Heads of Government, the Organization promotes and fosters cooperation, collaboration and community between the countries. Even if closer forms of political union do not immediately arise, the existence of the OECS demonstrates a commitment on the part of member states to share common destinies and to relate to the rest of the region and the world as a block of countries.

The critical issue that political union raises for education is whether or not education union is a pre-condition for further political unification. Should educational unification not predate political unification? In other words, should education not be used to mobilize and bond people in the several countries so that common identities and solidarity are cemented? If citizens are bonded and socialized to be only Antiguan, Barbudans, Grenadians, Vincentians, St Lucians, Dominicans, Montserratians, British Virgin Islanders, Kittitians and Nevisians can political union be realized? Or, will any union created by political leaders not fracture under the pressures of insular identities and solidarities? Put another way, how can education be reformed to help constructively resolve the issues related to federal and island identities, solidarities and bonds?

These issues draw attention not only to curriculum reform which introduces knowledge, attitudes and outlooks related to the identity and solidarity of the sub-region, but they also focus on the need of people of the different islands to be schooled together in common institutions. At least significant numbers of the future leadership cadres need to develop bonds at early stages of their own personal development.

2. At the same time that political union is being debated, the role of the state is being re-evaluated and in some instances reformed. In the post statehood/independence period, Caribbean states attempted to assume almost total responsibility for primary and secondary education. In so doing, the State assumed responsibilities that parents previously bore. Current wisdom is that much of what was undertaken by the State should be given back to parents or be undertaken by the private sector. Accordingly, proposals for cost recovery, user fees, privatization and decentralization are advocated in several quarters. In reality this means that the State should divest itself of some of its current commitments and functions in education. In a sense, however, the reform of the State and its role in education in the Caribbean has been a very silent and almost covert exercise.

Yet the ways in which this process is conducted and concluded have implications for the political viability of the democratic process itself. For education has been one of the most sensitive areas of public policy in the OECS. No Government can expect to severely curtail educational provision and secure re-election. Similarly, no party in opposition can promise significant retrenchment in education opportunities and expect to be elected. At the same time repeated promises, in party manifestos, of expanded educational opportunities that are not kept bring into question the credibility of Government in the generic sense and compromise the entire political process. The question that goes to the heart of the issue, is, should education remain the prerogative of the State? Is good quality education one of the services an OECS citizen should expect to receive from taxes paid?

It should be noted that from Caribbean experience there is no basis on which to conclude that the private sector is a better user of resources than the State in providing primary or secondary education. Private schools have long existed in Caribbean countries. The distinctions between public and private schools have been more social than educational. Miller (1990) surveyed private and public schools in Jamaica and compared their performance in common examinations. He found that private schools charging fees equal to per student costs in public schools did not perform as well as public schools in common examinations.

Probably of great import was the finding that performances in both the public and private schools were constrained and enhanced by the same factors. While public schools had better qualified, more experienced and better paid teachers, private schools had pupils who on average started their education earlier, had lower teacher-pupil ratios, smaller class sizes and had more parents who could afford to keep their children reasonably well fed, healthy and attending school regularly. The private schools that were superior to the best public schools were those few schools that charged fees that were more than three times the cost of a student in the public schools, paid teachers higher salaries than the public schools, had better qualified teachers and catered to the highest socioeconomic groups in the society. There are those who would maintain that if public schools were similarly endowed they would perform as well as these elite private schools.

These findings are not surprising because in the Caribbean the lines between the public and private sector in education have been blurred by the region's history. Many public schools are owned and managed by the Church, although Government pays all the operational expenses. In some instances church-owned schools were built by the Government on church lands. The State in the Caribbean has a history of cooperation with private sources in providing education, and itself has a reasonably good record of providing quality education.

The countries of the Caribbean that have the strongest and longest records of active State involvement in education have the most developed systems of primary and secondary education, for example, Barbados, Trinidad and Tobago and Cuba. The country that has the greatest involvement of the private sector in providing basic education, Haiti, has the most poorly developed school system in the region. The debate about sectors and their relative merits in providing education cannot by itself resolve the question of the role of the State in providing education. The positions taken on the relative merits of each sector appear to be more doctrinaire than empirical.

However, when these considerations are put against the fact that free primary education has been delivered in the OECS since the 1880s, it would be difficult, if not impossible, in the

reorganization of the State, to decree that the State could no longer provide primary and secondary education to its citizens. Any set of conditions that forced Governments to take such a position, even de facto if not de jure, would lead to the most far reaching political and social repercussions.

The central point being made here is that in the process of redefining and reforming the role of the State in Commonwealth Caribbean countries in the 1990s, it will be almost impossible for the reformed State to devolve its commitment to provide primary and secondary education. Primary education for all; first cycle secondary education for all; and second cycle secondary for at least the majority seem to be the inescapable minimum commitment of the State.

While the reformed Commonwealth Caribbean State cannot renege on its responsibility to provide primary and secondary education for its citizens, it must, however, rationalize and establish clear boundaries with respect to the responsibilities of the State, Churches, communities and parents.

3. Another set of issues that cannot be missed is, whether States in OECS countries should not pool certain functions, services and institutions in order to deliver good quality education at affordable costs. Is regional centralization of some functions and institutions not a necessity and precondition to realizing the educational and economic aspirations of the people of the sub-region? Can each State, acting independently, offer to its citizens the range and quality of education that is needed individually and nationally?

The clear response would appear to be that only good quality primary education at affordable costs could be delivered on a country basis. Yet even at the primary level there are significant gains to be made from sub-regional cooperation. Regional cooperation, centralization and pooling seem mandatory at the secondary and tertiary levels and with respect to several aspects of non-formal education dealing with adults in the work force.

Some regional centralization seems also to be necessary in the management of the educational system and human resource development generally. The small sizes of the school systems, and correspondingly of Ministries of Education, make it virtually impossible

for these small Ministries to provide all the developmental services and support that are needed in the delivery of good quality education. For example, small Ministries are strained beyond the level of their resources to have Planning, Curriculum Development, Media and Educational Technology, Measurement and Evaluation, Guidance and Counselling Units manned by several professionals supported by technical assistants, administrative, clerical and secretarial staff. In several instances a single professional working on his/her own is all that can be afforded. Should OECS countries not consider pooling and centralizing their resources to provide the developmental services, identified above, that are needed to support the education enterprise?

The problem with regional centralization is the loss of sovereignty and control at the national level and the introduction of a sense of distance and remoteness of the central unit from the locus of operation of schools in the various communities. Regional centralization of some areas of educational management and development implicitly requires corresponding measures to ensure greater local involvement and control in other areas. How this balance is struck is crucial to the resolution of the issues of efficiency and quality on the one hand and ownership and participation on the other hand.

4. Two of the OECS countries are still dependencies of Britain. The six sovereign countries have been independent for less than 15 years. The State apparatus that administers the education system is basically unchanged from colonial times. The major change has been the substitution of local politicians and administrators for expatriate colonial directors. The structural relationships have not been fundamentally altered.

The administration of education in colonial times was marked by four distinctive features.

- a) 'Top down' decision making and policy making with little consultation with or participation by the mass of intended beneficiaries, or victims. Policies and programmes were imposed.
- b) A civilized but nonetheless antagonistic relationship existed between the administration and the rest of the system, especially the teachers. Top policy makers and bureaucrats on the one hand and teachers and parents

on the other, viewed each other with suspicion and distrust and related either as adversaries or through some form of paternalism or patronage.

- c) The system was centralized in all of its processes. Usually all the important, and sometimes even minor decisions had to be made by the Director, who wielded considerable power especially over teachers.
- d) Low pay and poor working conditions for primary school teachers.

The issue that must be addressed is whether these structures and relationships are appropriate within the context of a democratic society. Should there not be greater participation of communities, teachers, parents, and the organizations that represent them, in the running of schools and in the general decision making process? Should the conditions of work and service of teachers, especially in the primary schools, not be substantially improved? Should the relationship between the Ministries of Education and the rest of the educational system be restructured to allow greater autonomy at the level of the school?

These four interrelated political aspects of the educational systems in the sub-region need to be redefined in any programme of educational reform. Because these aspects are interrelated they must be addressed in a comprehensive and not piecemeal fashion. For example, if the developmental functions of the management of the educational system are centralized and some operational functions democratized, then ways in which these centralized and democratized entities relate to Ministries of Education would need to be very carefully prescribed, if the reforms are to be accepted and a workable system established.

2. Economic Imperatives

The OECS economies share certain common features with the rest of the Commonwealth Caribbean. They are small, open economies with marked dependency on external factors and great vulnerability to hemispheric and global trends. They are based largely on primary agricultural products, like sugar and bananas, with tourism becoming an increasingly important sector. The countries experience disasters periodically, especially from hurricanes, which usually have dire economic and fiscal consequences.

In spite of these shortcomings the OECS territories experienced significant economic growth and

improved living standards in the 1960s and early 1970s. This period of sustained economic growth coincided with major constitutional, political, social and educational reforms. Economic strategies during this period concentrated on maintenance of growth in traditional economic sectors, the development of so-called light manufacturing, regional economic integration strategies, the creation of financial institutions like development banks and industrial corporations, export promotion agencies, the beginning of a tourism sector and commodity organizations.

In spite of these rather impressive changes none of these territories (and this holds for the English-speaking Caribbean territories as a whole) had sufficiently modernized or diversified their economies to achieve an adequate level of what Demas referred to as structural transformation within their economies. As a result the major goal of self-sustained development remained a mere dream and despite the apparent prosperity of the period these territories remained as open and vulnerable as they had ever been.

Demas, in his essay "Towards West Indian Survival" noted that,

"Our present situation is that our economies are relatively undiversified and lacking in sufficient linkages between the various production sectors both at the national and regional levels... They are not competitive or resilient in the face of external shocks. All of this means that we so far have been unable to develop an internal dynamic for growth and development."

It is not surprising, therefore, that the period following the first major oil shock and downturns in the limited export markets was marked by less spectacular economic growth and in several instances by negative growth in real per capita GDP. Recovery, where it has occurred, has been weak and fragile. The Bourne Report recorded the fact that between 1980 and 1985 Grenada and St Kitts-Nevis experienced negative real GDP growth per capita, St Lucia and Montserrat experienced growth of less than 2.0 per cent, Dominica experienced growth of 2.7 per cent and only St Vincent and Antigua-Barbuda experienced growth of more than 4.0 per cent. From a regional perspective the OECS economies have done better than several larger economies that have not yet begun to experience recovery of any kind.

In territories where weak economic growth has been the norm over the last decade the result has been undermined confidence, retrenchment in development projects, and some measure of despair

on the part of those whose lot was not substantially changed in the period of robust and sustained growth. More importantly this has depleted the capacity and the resources of the countries to respond to the new challenges posed by hemispheric and global trends.

In territories where there has been economic recovery and reasonable growth rates the level of prosperity has not been perceived as sufficiently rooted in the economies to afford long-term confidence. There has been the tendency for some business people to enter the distributive trades, import a wide range of non-essential goods and sell them at very high prices. As a few individuals benefit in disproportionate ways from the situation, it is becoming evident that there is also significant disenchantment from persons who seem not to benefit while being buffeted by rising prices. In the mad frenzy to make a fast dollar before the perceived inevitable downturn, significant social problems are created.

World Economic Environment

Demas notes at least three major issues that must be of concern to the territories under consideration. They are:

- a) Increasing globalization: this includes the globalization of consumer tastes, rapid movement of funds through modern technological devices in response to anticipated changes in interest rates or exchange rates, the desire and effort of countries such as USSR, China, India, Brazil and the Eastern European countries to participate fully in the world economy.
- b) Regionalism and the growth of "mega-blocs" in the field of trade. Examples of these are the USA/Canada/Mexico initiative, the European Single Market in 1992, the emergence of the "Pacific rim".
- c) Services (e.g. tourism and high tech) are becoming more important than manufactures in world production and trade. These factors provide both problems and opportunities for the OECS.

The Bourne Report - "Caribbean Development to the Year 2000: Challenges, Prospects and Policies" - after exhaustively analyzing the performance of Commonwealth Caribbean economies, also concluded that the economic future of the region depended on the extent to which the Caribbean could take advantage of the growth opportunities inherent in some global trends. The trends identified were:

- i) Expected strong world demand for selected commodities, many of which are likely to be new products. Some of these new products are likely to compete with or replace Caribbean export staples. Exploiting these opportunities presented by revival of world trade will require improvements in the region's international competitiveness, as well as conscious development of new export products.
- ii) Increased international demand for services. The areas of greatest demand are for tourism services and for knowledge-intensive services such as law, medicine, higher education, engineering design and construction. In the area of services the Caribbean already has demonstrated comparative advantage or can readily develop such advantage. But to exploit the opportunities presented through the increased demand for services the Caribbean will need to provide appropriate incentives and institutional facilities.
- iii) Potential opportunities presented by the emergence of the Pacific rim as a new international growth centre and the long-term growth prospects of Latin America. These two prospects present fresh scope for the establishment of new trade, technology and financial links. A barrier to exploiting the opportunities that could emerge is knowledge of language and culture.
- iv) New and improved technologies and their increasing accessibility make it possible for the Caribbean to significantly upgrade its own production technology by 'technological leap-frogging'. This possibility increases the feasibility of productivity improvements required for international competitiveness as well as for raising living standards in the region in the most efficient manner. One hurdle to overcome in such 'technology leapfrogging' is the training of workers in the new technologies.
- v) Increased prospects for strengthening economic relations among developing countries have greater potential for enhancing export performance in natural

resource based products and services and for reviving investment and equity funds, than loans from commercial banks and multilateral institutions.

To take advantage of these opportunities for growth, identified by the Bourne Report, the Caribbean has to act collectively and also as individual nations. While the Commonwealth Caribbean already has some form of economic cooperation, it will be necessary for regional integration to go beyond the traditional language groups. The present and past segmentation of the Caribbean has nothing to do with the region as such. It is the legacy of past and present superpower rivalry played out in this part of the world. Although most of the countries have become independent, they have still maintained traditional colonial trading relations with the former European imperial powers. Ironically it is the unification of Europe that will prompt greater Caribbean integration. Already the Caricom countries are considering expanding membership to non-English-speaking countries. In this regard integration with the Dutch Caribbean may not be far away, and the inclusion of Haiti and the Dominican Republic should not be far behind.

These economic possibilities all have implications for the educational system. Ideally the educational system should anticipate these developments by at least a decade in the formal system, and at least five years in the non-formal system. It is necessary to comment briefly on each of these potential economic developments in terms of what ought to take place in the educational system to facilitate the economic future projected by the trends.

- To produce new products in response to strong global demand, the education system ought to produce the professionals, technicians and operatives needed to design, develop, and mass produce the products and to sustain their supply and competitiveness in the market. If the education system does not produce the trained manpower required then the only way to design, develop and produce these new products would be to rely on expatriate talent. Formal tertiary education would be needed to prepare the professionals and the technicians required, while specific job training would need to be offered to operatives through non-formal educational organizations.
- Supporting tourism services, on a larger scale than currently exists in the region,

would require new and expanded training provision in a variety of areas.

It must be realized that the tourism sector cannot be conceptualized as only being the hotels sector. The hospitality industry now embraces a wide range of services such as food and restaurant services, transport, entertainment, advertising, insurance, medical and so on. This sector also provides the greatest potential for the forging of forward and backward linkages with the rest of the economy. Also OECS tourism, like that of the rest of the Caribbean, is based largely on the superb natural ecological endowments of the island chain. Extensive development of tourism that ignores attention to environment issues may not prove to be sustainable. Much more attention would therefore need to be paid to environmental education.

- Knowledge-intensive services would also require expanded tertiary education opportunities to produce the personnel required not only to supply national need, but also export demand.
- Expanding trading potential with the Pacific rim countries and with Latin America and other blocks of developing countries, and regional integration across language and cultural barriers, all require that the educational system produces graduates with in-depth knowledge and understanding of languages and cultures of these potential trading partners.
- 'Technology leapfrogging' to improve the region's international competitiveness and the quality of life within the region will require that the education system, formal and non-formal, produces large numbers of persons with a working understanding and functional skills in the areas of digital technologies, micro-computers and modern communications technology. The area of keyboard skills, for example, might become an important component in the definition of functional literacy.

It should be noted from the above that the opportunities for growth that revival of the global economy is likely to present to Caribbean economies, will all require education responses which take basic education as a given. They assume that the basic education foundation exists and is defined in terms of good general primary and secondary education. The specific educational demands of these economic opportunities will be for specific job training in new technologies, foreign language

learning and technician and professional training. While some language and technology training can occur at the primary and secondary levels, the demand of these developments will also require a significant input at the tertiary level.

In light of the above it may be unwise for OECS countries to adopt policies, suggested by some agencies, that would cut back public support for tertiary education in order to finance basic education. Indeed one of the remarkable features of the Caribbean area is that while the territories compare favourably with even the MDC's with respect to educational provision at the basic level (i.e. primary and secondary), provision at the tertiary level is extremely low even by LDC standards.

While private sources may be required to give some support for tertiary education, in a situation in which companies are tooling up for new products, exploring trade with new blocks of countries and introducing new technologies, they may expect public assistance with respect to training the manpower required. If the Caribbean was to fail to develop the manpower required through regional educational capacity, most of the jobs created would go to foreign nationals imported in circumstances of the growing unemployment of Caribbean nationals. This is unlikely to be socially acceptable.

The challenge that will face private enterprises and public tertiary institutions is that of changing the mode of delivery of technical and professional training. It is very unlikely that schools and colleges will be able to afford the full complement of equipment that comprises the new technology required to produce and improve services. Students may have to share time between the college and the workplace through sandwich type courses in order to be fully prepared for the particular occupation. The model of clinical training used in medicine, for doctors and technicians, may need to be adopted in several other professional and technical fields.

The Bourne Report made the point that comparative advantage in global economic competition resides in technological capability and human resource development. UWI Vice-Chancellor McIntyre, in the Sixth Dr Eric Williams Lecture, observed that the future of Caribbean economic development would be decided on whether the region could make the switch from a development strategy based on the extraction and development of natural resources to a strategy that depended on human resources, knowledge and technology.

Economic planners of the sub-region, focussing on the OECS, say that the major objectives of the

long-term development thrust of the OECS, as well as other Caribbean territories, must be:

- The development of the capacity for reasonable self-sustained growth.
- The creation of acceptable employment opportunities at levels that will keep unemployment at tolerable rates.
- The earning of foreign exchange and reasonable control of inflation.
- The ensuring of greater social equity.

They project at least five major areas of manpower needs to support economic development, that education and training should address over the next 20 years. They are:

- Tourism and tourism related services.

As noted earlier, the tourism sector embraces an array of support services and must be concerned with airline services, customs and immigration, drivers, tour guides, food services, road maintenance, law and order, entertainment, health services in addition to the management of actual hotels and guest houses.

- Agriculture.

The needs here are for adequately trained agrobusiness persons and the modernization of the sector. The point was made that the agricultural sector must be organized so that:

There is food security; the present food import bills can be drastically reduced; adequate linkages can be established with the tourist sector.

- Financial services.

It is anticipated that a more sophisticated economy will require an array of modern banking, insurance and other related services.

- Maintenance and repair of equipment and machines.

The economies will need large cadres of repair and maintenance persons and technicians to ensure constant reliable functioning of the electrical, electronic and other equipment and machines that people will take for granted in the years ahead.

- Micro-processing services.

This area requires significant consideration. It will be impossible to forge ahead in the coming years without a population that is computer literate.

The general consensus among economists in the OECS is that tourism and the general hospitality industry will be the main growth centres in the economies of the sub-region over the next 20 years. It is recognized that these are highly vulnerable sectors that can be devastated overnight. Also that much of the foreign exchange earned can be absorbed in

import bills of basic necessities to support the industry. Massive programmes of education and training could suddenly become redundant, if there are radical shifts in this sector.

Some economists adopt the view that small-scale manufacturing and agro-businesses represent a safer bet. However, these sectors are likely to employ less people, require more capital investment, demand higher levels of education, take longer to produce meaningful gains, and in the end the returns are likely to be less spectacular.

The exact mix of economic policies that will guide the sub-region over the next 20 years has only been briefly sketched by the planners. The balance to be struck between the relative contribution of the different sectors of economy is still to be worked out. Education reform must therefore proceed with only sketchy outlines of the economic future of the sub-region.

3. Social Imperatives

The social trends that can be identified throughout the Caribbean region and that are also manifest in the OECS can be listed as follows:

- a) Widening social disparities. While social mobility remains the major goal for the marginal majorities that constitute Caribbean societies, the material symbols of mobility are increasingly beyond the reach even of those who have been successful through the educational system. In some OECS countries, owning a home is fast becoming an unattainable dream of teachers, nurses, policemen, soldiers and civil servants: the traditional occupations of the socially mobile in Caribbean societies. The same is true of owning and maintaining a motor car and of the general standard of living. The decline in living standards has not affected all social strata in the same way. The highest social strata seem to have advanced even in this period of adverse economic conditions. Some subsidy has been afforded the lowest social strata considering their vulnerability to adverse conditions. The middle strata, however, have been most severely affected. Their progress has been halted and their numbers reduced as less mobility occurs and as some members have regressed to a lower social status.

Associated with social retrogression is the inflation of the education credentials being required to obtain jobs. This inflation in many instances has little to do with the education required to do the job, but rather is reflective of the fierce competition to obtain

jobs and the success of school systems in increasing the numbers of graduates with educational credentials that formerly were not as readily available in the labour market.

- b) Widening gender disparities which particularly disadvantage men of the lower strata. While women remain marginalized in many areas of Caribbean society, in recent decades social mobility opportunities into middle level positions have increasingly favoured women. This trend has been facilitated by expanded educational opportunities at the secondary level. The result is the increasing interaction effect between gender and social strata. The upper strata are predominantly male, in terms of the substantive members. The lower strata are also predominantly male. The differences between the males of the upper and lower strata are largely marked by differences in race and colour that have traditionally differentiated these strata. Within the framework of Caribbean 'pigmentocracy', the upper strata tend to be of lighter and the lower strata of darker skin colour. While Caribbean males continue to be polarized in terms of their location in the social structure, the middle strata have become predominantly female.

These interactions between social strata and gender have profound implications for all aspects of social life: the family, the workplace, normal social intercourse, church membership, etc. These interactions are clearly reflected in the educational systems of the region where girls are increasingly over-represented in all the segments of the school system promising upward social mobility and lower strata boys are under-represented. However, lower strata boys are over-represented in vocational schools leading to traditional low status occupations.

What this implies is that the Commonwealth Caribbean cannot adopt uncritically the gender strategies proposed for other parts of the world. While attention must also be given to reversing women's marginalization in society, attention must be given to male marginalization where there is concrete evidence of its existence. In other words, reform strategies must address the issue of gender and not merely of women or of men.

- c) Increasing deviant behaviour among males. While some form of deviant behaviour is characteristic of all societies at every period of history, deviant behaviour in the Caribbean has increased significantly over the last decade and a half. The indices of this are: increase in the use

and abuse of drugs, particularly cocaine; the increase in violence and violent crimes; and the spread of anti-establishment sub-cultures across the region. This latter is usually associated with religious groups that challenge Christian orthodoxy at several points. Not surprisingly it is lower strata men that predominate in this increasing deviance. Lacking legitimate avenues for channelling their considerable talents and energies, many lower strata males have turned to deviant and illegitimate activities. Much of this deviant behaviour is not acknowledged, even though great shock is expressed when aspects of this behaviour explode in bizarre actions that make sensational headlines, sometimes internationally. Escalating deviance impacts on education as discipline in schools becomes increasingly problematic, vandalism becomes common in areas where the schools are perceived as part of the problem and young people begin to perceive schooling as a useless or marginal activity.

- d) Deteriorating social infrastructure. At the same time that greater demands are being placed on social services, those services are deteriorating in terms of their capacity to cope with even the lower levels of demand of the past. The health services have little or no capacity to deal creatively with drug addicts, when regular health care is at risk. Counselling services and social welfare services are unable to respond positively to families needing assistance to cope with children with problems. Schools preoccupied with raising funds to maintain basic facilities, like sanitation, have little time and even fewer resources to deal effectively with youngsters who, having become disillusioned with the prospects apparently afforded through legitimate activities, have turned to drugs and other illegal activities.

While the danger of becoming alarmist must be carefully avoided, so too is the danger of being sanguine about a potentially explosive situation. In examining the implications of these social trends for the education system the crucial point to be grasped is that it is the internal structure of the educational system and its external relations to social stratification that is key. In other words it is not the curriculum and the subject content taught that is critical. It is not the knowledge, skills and attitudes that will make the difference. The social problems outlined cannot be solved by indoctrination.

Rather, education has to be the main avenue of opportunity for social and material progress. In this regard, the way in which the education system resolves the issues of who get access, in what numbers, to what quality of education, at what levels, and how those who are successful are recognized, remunerated and rewarded by the society become the critical issues. The education system cannot resolve these issues in isolation. Their resolution is dependent on the societal consensus that emerges with respect to the role that education must play with respect to allocating people to positions in the society.

The question is whether there is room for some consensus around the areas in which Caribbean people will assert and exert themselves in terms of the type of society that they will seek to create. In this regard there is no greater challenge than that of reconstructing society to devalue the historic importance placed on the ascriptions of race, gender, and family origins and to place the new ascriptions of nationality and citizenship in proper perspective. Of greatest importance is the need to mobilize the energies and exertions of Caribbean people around some noble visions of themselves, the region to which they belong and their contribution to the progress of human civilization.

Education in modern society offers the promise of a better material future. Education holds out the prospect of the children having a different future from the present and past of their parents. Education is a form of hoping across generations. It is a very dangerous sign, particularly in newly independent countries, when education begins to be perceived as being unrelated to desired material progress. Deliberate efforts are required to reverse such perceptions.

In this regard it must be recognized that the teacher is not only an instructor but also a standard-bearer to the society of the value of education as a means of social and material progress. Nowhere is this more true than of the primary school teacher. The primary school teaching occupation is one of the first 'respectable' occupations that children of the lower strata aspire to. If the primary school teachers are held up publicly as the exemplars of persons who are poorly paid and this is reinforced by the observation that they live in sub-standard housing, are forced to dress shabbily, cannot hope to drive cars, cannot adequately take care of their children, then education as a means of material progress is considerably undermined. The decline of the standard living of teachers in many countries in the region has not only

undermined teaching as an occupation, but education as a means of hoping across generations.

But education is also material progress itself. When children complete primary schooling in circumstances where their parents never went to school, those children have made and are perceived to have made, material progress. The same is true of secondary and university education and the credentials obtained from them. Education is one of the symbols of material progress in modern society and has meaning in itself, apart from its instrumental meaning. Education is not only a means to upward social mobility, it is upward mobility itself. Education credentials are badges of honour with social meaning far beyond the educational competence they are supposed to represent.

When it is recognized that males of the lower strata are grossly under-represented in all sections of the secondary school systems that offer social mobility, as well as in all sections of the tertiary sector, then the need to address the issue becomes clear. Programmes need to be mounted, not only to expand secondary and tertiary education opportunities but to ensure equality of access and the participation of lower strata males. Likewise women are generally under-represented in science and technology fields and in top leadership positions. Programmes need to be mounted to increase women's access and confidence to move into these areas.

The processes that have produced these patterns in the Caribbean are deep rooted. Only long-term programmes can be expected to reverse them. Offering such opportunities to lower strata males and women and assisting them to be placed in jobs after completing their programmes successfully are necessary first steps in attempting to stem the tide of male deviance and women's marginalization.

For the social restructuring of the educational system to be effective, some linkage must be established with the opportunities for economic growth that the educational system ought to be directed to support. In other words some of the expanded secondary and tertiary opportunities offered to lower strata males should channel them into economic activities designed to provide and produce new products, expand knowledge-intensive services and to facilitate 'technology leapfrogging'. Similarly, developments in science and technology need to be tied to measures offering women equality of access to these fields.

4. Cultural Imperatives

With the spread of television, and more recently cable and satellite technology, throughout the region it is not unusual to hear complaints about the cultural penetration of North America in the Caribbean and the OECS. Yet if a careful analysis is done, the Caribbean, including the OECS, during this same period and through these same channels has been penetrating not only North America, but also the rest of the world. The spread of reggae, Rastafarianism, calypso and soca through the world, is evidence of such penetration. That the calypsonian Arrow has an international reputation and audience gives testimony to the fact that OECS nationals have used the new technologies to their advantage. The point being made here is that several aspects of Caribbean culture appear to have mass appeal in many other parts of the world and constitute considerable assets. In addition, the revolution in communication technology presents the Caribbean with a ready medium through which to exploit its cultural potential.

What is interesting is that the economists, in the Bourne Report, reviewing the economic prospects to the year 2000, did not include among their opportunities for growth the potential to export culture. Yet the potential of the Caribbean in entertainment, sports, fashion, foods and memorabilia directed to Caribbean migrants living in industrialized countries, is quite considerable. Part of the problem of not recognizing this potential and of not highlighting it as an official part of the development agenda of the region, lies in the school system and its relation to Caribbean culture.

Schooling in the Caribbean is Euro-centric in its orientation whether the schools are located in Antigua, Haiti, St Maarten, St Lucia, Montserrat, the Bahamas, Grenada or Suriname. Not only do European languages prevail, but also European culture - that is its creolized version. To be properly educated means mastery of European languages and culture, the particular version relevant to the different cultural divisions of the Caribbean region. Yet Caribbean distinctives, in terms of identity and cultural heritage, are not European. These distinctives draw heavily on African and Asian ancestry, but these are seldom incorporated into the school system in any positive way, except perhaps in special items rendered at prize giving, graduation or other special occasions.

Most of the region's most celebrated musicians, songwriters, artists, dancers, sportsmen, fashion models, businessmen and impresarios have not been

numbered among its most successful students from the school system. Neither has their contribution to Caribbean economic growth been factored into the various equations for development, for both the school system and the formal economy have not yet come to terms with the realities within which these persons operate. But neither the school system nor the planners of economic development can continue to ignore them, given the considerable potential that they constitute in a world in which entertainment, sports, fashion, fine arts and memorabilia of all kinds, will be growth industries. Certainly, the Caribbean's potential to export culture is much greater than its prospects to export science and technology.

There are ready export markets for both persons and products related to popular cultural expressions including Caribbean interpretations of popular culture. These markets can be identified as follows:

- a) The market of Caribbean nationals and their off-spring living in industrialized countries wishing to maintain contact with their cultural roots.
- b) The market of people of industrialized countries wishing to maintain a cosmopolitan perspective in their popular culture tastes.
- c) The market of people of Third World countries seeking alternatives, to diminish First World predominance, in their choices.
- d) The international market for the best performers and products.

The challenge to the school systems of the Caribbean is to assist in the development of artists, athletes, musicians, dancers, comedians, actors, songwriters, play-writers, footballers, cricketers, basketball players, baseball players, fashion models, etc. In the first place, Caribbean school systems have never regarded these as serious occupations. Nor have they regarded those who would pursue full-time careers in these fields as the most intelligent. It is also true that some students possessing great talent in one or more of these areas have not been among the more able in mastering basic concepts of general education. For these reasons considerable changes in orientation and outlook will be required.

New theories of intelligence stress the multi-faceted nature of this construct. Each human being is said to be capable of seven relatively independent forms of information processing, with individuals differing from one another in the specific profile of intelligences that they exhibit. The seven different types of intelligences are listed as logical-mathematical, linguistic, musical, spatial, bodily-kinesthetic, interpersonal and intrapersonal. From the perspective of this theory formal schooling has over-emphasized

the logical-mathematical and linguistic and under-emphasized the musical, spatial, bodily-kinesthetic, interpersonal and intrapersonal abilities. The challenge is to promote a better balance.

The main elements of the challenge can be listed as follows:

- Accepting entertainment, sports, fashion and other such fields as legitimate areas of specialization in the school system, especially at the secondary and tertiary levels.
- Developing creative programmes to teach talented students who appear slow in learning basic academic content and skills.
- Developing institutions and programmes at the secondary and tertiary levels to enhance the special talents of students without squashing their individuality and the peculiar flair that makes them unique.
- Introducing and initiating students in the new techniques and technologies currently used in their particular fields.
- Introducing and initiating students in business practices current in their fields.
- Inducing these students to be proficient in the use of foreign languages in order to expand the opportunities for marketing their talent.
- Developing linkages between the institutions, the students and the particular industry for which they are being prepared, including work/study arrangements, placement services, and self start assistance for individual employment.

Note must be taken of schools and colleges that have taken pioneering action in work in this area. Their experience should prove invaluable in the generalization of such practice across the system. It should also be noted that the development of these aspects of Caribbean cultural expression is not only of great economic importance, but also of great social significance. Many of those who have adopted a deviant stance to the social and material prospects offered to them by society have located their endeavours in these areas. By adopting a positive approach, by imaginative and effective programmes, the school system could begin to reclaim and channel the talent and the energies of potential deviants. This has the potential of transforming social relationships within some segments of Caribbean society.

In addition, the continued development of Caribbean cultural expression and its spread to other parts of the world have significant implications for in

creased confidence of Caribbean people in themselves and their capacity to compete successfully in the global system. The impact on other areas of Caribbean endeavour could be quite profound.

5. Demographic and Migration Imperatives

Demographic and migration factors are often ignored in analyses of the imperatives shaping education. To do so in examining the antecedents of education in the OECS would be to commit a fatal error. In these micro-states with relatively small populations demographic and migration factors take on even greater significance.

Projected Population Trends

Harewood (1991) examining population trends and projecting OECS population to the year 2010, noted that only B.V.I. and St Lucia are projected to have increases in the numbers of the various school age groups. In all the other countries, it is projected that there would be decline in the school age population. Harewood's study was based on census data, hence it did not include projections for Antigua and Barbuda because of that country's non-participation in the 1970 and 1980 censuses. Judging, however, from the patterns of school enrollment Antigua and Barbuda's school age population could grow more because of net inflows of migrants than because of natural increase.

Harewood observed that not only are there indications of significant decline in fertility in most OECS countries but also clear signals of the aging of the populations. This latter trend is evident even in B.V.I. and St Lucia where the school age populations will continue to increase. Even in these countries there will be an appreciable decline in the proportion of the total population which is of school age. This point can be illustrated by two examples. In 1970 the population 25 years and older in St Vincent and the Grenadines comprised 31 per cent of the total population. By 1980 the proportion had risen marginally to 33 per cent, but by 2010 it will have increased to 55 per cent of the total population. In St Lucia the 25 years and older population was approximately one third of the total population in 1970 and also in 1980, but is projected to increase to more than a half by 2010.

The implication of these demographic trends is that with the exception of B.V.I., St Lucia and possibly Antigua and Barbuda, by 2010 there will be considerably less demand for early childhood, primary and

secondary school places since there will be significantly less children to be catered for than is currently the case. This projected decline will be uneven across the territories. For example, the decline of the school age population, between the years 1980 and 2010, was projected to be of the order of 30 per cent in Montserrat, 27 per cent in St Kitts and Nevis, 20 per cent in Grenada and less than 10 per cent in St Vincent and the Grenadines.

At the same time the demand for early childhood, primary and secondary education will be declining in most of these countries, the demand for tertiary and adult education could be significantly increased in all of them. This will be so not only because of the shifts in the age structure of the population over the projected period but also because of the significant expansion of secondary education that has occurred in the sub-region over the last 20 years. The demand could be for both formal and non-formal education. Over the next 20 years there may need to be some restructuring of the allocations to formal and non-formal education based on these shifts in the sizes of the various age cohorts and educational needs and demand.

Another implication of the projected appreciable increase in the relative size of the working population is that job creation will be an even greater challenge over the next 20 years. If the challenge can be met successfully then the total national product could increase sufficiently to expand the resources required to provide education. If the job opportunities do not keep pace with the growing population of working age, then the problem of unemployment and under-employment will be worsened, and the need to provide social welfare assistance could seriously reduce the resources available for education.

In making demographic projections for the OECS, fertility and mortality rates can be forecasted with a considerable degree of accuracy given the trends over the last 140 years during which regular censuses have been taken. The problematic variable in such projections is migration. But migration is not only problematic for demographic projections; it constitutes a vital component that requires independent treatment.

Migration Trends and Patterns in the OECS

Migration can be viewed from different perspectives. It can reflect political or social repression at home. It can reflect good economic prospects abroad compared to poor prospects at home. It can

reflect limited opportunities at home for personal growth and development. Migration in the Commonwealth Caribbean has seldom been the result of political or social repressive Governments and conditions. Comparative economic prospects and limited opportunities for personal growth have been the major determinants of migration in the Commonwealth Caribbean, including the OECS, over the last century.

Migration flows are beneficial to global output as it shifts human resources from low to high productivity uses. Migration results in lower unemployment rates in the home countries, increased private transfers in the form of remittances, and the return of migrants represents an increased pool of trained experienced indigenous labour.

On the other hand, host countries are usually required to increase expenditure on social services. Home countries lose human capital, at least temporarily. Usually family life is destabilized by migration especially where the majority of the migrants are women. Sometimes cultural problems are raised in the host countries as they seek to integrate and absorb the migrants. This can strain relationships between host and home countries.

In the first decades of this century Caribbean people migrated to Panama as part of the labour to build the Canal; to Costa Rica and Nicaragua in the building of railroads; to Cuba, the Bermuda Dockyards, Aruba and Curacao in relation to developments in those countries; and to the United States before the restrictions imposed prior to 1930. The migration flows were related to regional development projects which required literate and skilled manpower. Caribbean labour met most of those requirements.

The impact of these migration flows in the OECS countries has not been uniform. In the 19th century St Lucia had the smallest population, while currently it has the largest. Comparatively speaking migration flows have had the least impact on St Lucia's population. Conversely, St Kitts-Nevis had the second largest population in the middle of the 19th century, but currently has the smallest among the independent countries. Between 1891 and 1980 the population of St Kitts-Nevis has actually declined. It is one of the few countries in the world that has actually experienced a decline in population over the last hundred years. St Kitts-Nevis' migration rate of 30 per 1000 is one of the highest in the region and the world.

The differences between St Lucia and St Kitts-Nevis seem to be related to a complex set of factors related to arable lands, rainfall, the dominance of

sugar plantations in the economy, and the size and activity of the peasantry. These complex and interrelated factors seem to have determined the extent to which people have looked outside for prospects of economic survival and personal advancement. The differences between St Kitts-Nevis and St Lucia seem to mark some structural differences between the Leeward and Windward islands relative to the factors identified.

A most important point to note is that Antigua-Barbuda has been able, in recent decades, to reverse the high rate of migration that is indeed characteristic of the entire region. In the 1980s Antigua-Barbuda's rate of migration was 2 per 1000 and falling, one of the lowest in the entire region. Related to this reduced rate of migration is the strong performance of the Antigua-Barbuda economy as it has shifted to tourism as its main industry.

The Antigua-Barbuda experience seems to confirm the observation that migration in the Commonwealth Caribbean is driven mainly by comparative economic advantage and personal advancement considerations in the marketing of labour. Where economic opportunities exist at relatively high rates of remuneration, Caribbean people are much less willing to migrate than in circumstances where the reverse obtains. The experience of the Bahamas in making a similar economic transition underscores the inference drawn for the Antiguan-Barbudan experience.

The destinations to which nationals of the OECS have migrated over the last 30 years have varied significantly. In the 1960s the migration flows out of the Caribbean were mainly to the United Kingdom. In the 1970s and 1980s the destinations of such flows have shifted mainly to the United States and Canada. But OECS nationals also tend to migrate within the Caribbean, unlike Trinidadians and Jamaicans who tend to emigrate outside the region. It was estimated that up to 1980 40 per cent of OECS nationals that migrated did so within the Caribbean. This was higher than any other set of Caribbean nationals.

Within the Caribbean, OECS nationals tend to display different destination preferences. Grenadians tend to migrate to Trinidad and Barbados; Vincentians to Barbados and Trinidad; St Lucians to Barbados; Dominicans to Martinique and Guadeloupe; and Antiguan, Kittitian and Nevisians to the British and U.S. Virgin Islands; and British Virgin Islanders to the U.S. Virgin Islands. In recounting these patterns of movement, migration within the OECS itself has been ignored. Brief mention must however be made of the fact that in the 1980s BVI and Antigua have

been the recipients of most of the movement within the sub-region.

Simmons and Plaza (1991) reviewing censuses, immigration records, surveys and other empirical studies related to migration to North America from the OECS countries noted that the new immigration policies and labour demands in North America since the mid 1960s have fuelled extraordinary levels of migration to the United States and Canada which show no sign of abating. The OECS countries are estimated to have lost nearly 15 per cent of their total population through net migration over the 1960s and another 14 per cent over the 1970s. Data for the 1980s seem to indicate that migration was even higher than previously. Official U.S. and Canadian immigration records show that between 1980 and 1984 34,929 persons from the OECS emigrated to those countries, while in the period 1985 to 1989 the number had risen to 94,436. If these figures are confirmed, net loss through migration in the 1980s could be of the order of 20 per cent. Grenada is estimated to have lost 22 per cent of its population through net migration following political turbulence and economic distress in the late 1970s (and subsequently) while Antigua and Barbuda is estimated to have lost only 11 per cent in the same period.

Simmons and Plaza cited a number of factors that seem to have contributed to these high levels of net migration from the OECS to North America. These include:

- Relative strong economic growth in North America compared to the Caribbean, including the OECS, creating more jobs with higher incomes and greater prospects in North America than could be obtained inside the Caribbean.
- Increased levels of primary and secondary schooling with little prospects of further education within the sub-region. Interviews with OECS migrants, student visa records, the enrollment of OECS migrants in higher education institutions immediately upon arrival in North America, all corroborate the conclusion that OECS nationals migrate to North America to seek education opportunities at the tertiary level.
- Immigration laws and practices that have facilitated such movement.

Simmons and Plaza also noted that OECS emigrants to North America had significantly higher levels of education than the norm of the populations in their home countries. They accounted for this pattern by referring to four complementary factors.

First, the emigrants are most likely to be self-selective in part by their aspirations for schooling. Second, North American immigration policies tend to encourage or facilitate persons with higher levels of schooling and discourage and frustrate persons with lower levels of schooling. Third, migrants tended to be younger adults who were part of a new generation in the OECS who had benefitted from improved educational opportunities. Fourth, many of those migrating had undertaken advanced studies within the Caribbean, mainly in Barbados, Trinidad or Jamaica, prior to their migration to North America.

From their review, Simmons and Plaza also observed that one of the problems that migrants to North America experienced was the problem with the education of their children at the primary and secondary levels. High drop out rates, low self esteem, under achievement and unusually high numbers placed in special education programmes are but some of the problems that have been the subject of concerns expressed by both North American educators and Caribbean parents.

In the OECS, like the rest of the Commonwealth Caribbean, migration has been the means of escaping the vicissitudes and limitations of Caribbean economies and limited education provision at the tertiary level. Migration is the alternative when opportunities do not exist at home. For this reason times of economic recession and depression and restricted migration possibilities are potentially dangerous and explosive. Such was the situation in the 1930s when there was social and political upheaval throughout the region.

Another important relationship, often missed by economists matching education indicators with macro-economic indices, is that the prospect of migration fundamentally distorts any attempt to link local economic indices with educational levels in the region. For Caribbean people have always participated in education with the hope of marketing their skills and knowledge not only locally but internationally. Accordingly, Caribbean people have always insisted on educational credentials that can be negotiated internationally. Any attempt to rationalize education and educational credentials so that they reflect only Caribbean economic realities is likely to be strongly resisted and rejected by Caribbean people.

Caribbean education therefore is required, by its clientele, to respond to economic possibilities and opportunities beyond those available through the local economies. In a real sense education is required to be in advance of Caribbean economies. In these

circumstances, where migration is a real possibility facilitated by education, it is very likely that there will be a lack of fit between national education indicators and national macro-economic activities and indicators.

The education system and the economy are not closed systems that are so linked that there is direct correspondence between levels of economic and educational development. Generally speaking, aspirations and consumption in the Caribbean exceed both the level of educational development and the level of production, as normally judged by macro indicators. The profound implication of this fact of Caribbean existence is that the education systems of the region cannot be limited only to the possibilities of Caribbean economies. The clientele of the education system, through migration, have broader visions and expectations of themselves than the economy realistically permits. In serving the people the education system must of necessity be out of step with several aspects of the economy. This is a feature of the Caribbean that is often missed.

The experience of Antigua-Barbuda and the Bahamas would suggest that this relationship can be reversed if the traditional economy is transformed to offer greater prospects to the people. In other words, it is the economic transformation that will reverse the relationships with education, and not the reverse.

These migration patterns and their relationship with education have important implications for any reform of education especially in light of the hemispheric economic scenarios that seem to be emerging. The Caribbean is increasingly being integrated into the North American economy. The Caribbean Basin Initiative, the Canadian/ Caribbean agreement, Caribbean, and the Enterprise of the Americas are but three instruments of that process. As an aside, it is interesting to note that these agreements facilitate the free movement of goods, services and capital, but not people.

Canada and the United States have entered into a free trade agreement. A similar arrangement is being worked out between the United States and Mexico. A North America trading block, with the largest market in the world, is about to be inaugurated on the doorsteps of the Caribbean. While the prospects of Caribbean countries to exploit the potentials of this market are being contemplated, little attention is given to the fact that individuals from the region may more readily access opportunities than corporations and Governments.

Given the migration lessons of the past, one can expect that OECS nationals will be seeking education

to help them individually to exploit the market situation that is being created to the North. This will be exaggerated if there is strong growth in North America and weak growth in the Caribbean. Education will be seen by OECS people as the means of circumventing the immigration barriers that have been erected. Caribbean and OECS people will move to such occupations for which there is strong demand in North America. Already nursing, and teaching to a lesser extent, have begun to feel the pressure of such pulls. In order to meet local needs, the education systems of the region will need to supply much more than local demand.

While there is great debate about 'brain drain', the fact is that Caribbean economies have not been able to absorb all the human resource that can be, and has been, developed through the education systems. There is no reason to believe that this feature of the region is going to disappear in the immediate future, unless the economies are drastically transformed. In such circumstances educational planning and reforms must take migration into account. To ignore it is folly.

The OECS needs also to face the implications of internal migration among its member countries. If there are unequal economic developments and prospects among member countries and also unequal educational opportunities then several untoward circumstances could arise. Persons in strong economies could end up with menial jobs while good jobs go to persons from other countries. This could foster local resentment which could fracture unity. Or some countries could lose much of their professional and skilled cadres to others.

For example, if there are widely different conditions of service for teachers in the eight countries, and free movement in the OECS, then some countries could lose teachers to others. This could strain relationships between the countries. Standardizing conditions of service and pay throughout the sub-region would prevent the movement of teachers solely on economic grounds.

From the foregoing discussion it can be seen that migration is an important factor in the OECS. There is no reason to believe that the migration patterns of the past will be completely eliminated in the future. Education reforms must therefore take account of the lessons learned and not be hamstrung by the strong passions usually evoked when this issue is debated.

Chapter 5

Voices, Views and Visions

Introduction

During the month of May 1991 the Working Group visited each of the eight OECS territories. In each territory the Group had discussions with a wide cross-section of groups, individuals and interests. In these discussions the Working Group encouraged and solicited views and visions of the OECS and the future of education. The Working Group was the beneficiary of a wealth of ideas, suggestions and insightful comments from persons from all the territories. The cooperation given and the quantity and quality of the responses received were outstanding. This Chapter seeks to voice the views and visions expressed in these eight national consultations.

While the persons and groups interviewed were forthcoming with a wealth of suggestions this was not without one great reservation that several groups expressed in most territories. This reservation concerned the extent to which the Working Group could ensure that this reform exercise would not be simply talk and that the report submitted by the Group would not be another one for the shelf. This reservation was usually expressed before the group or the individual would volunteer any opinions or views.

After probing several persons concerning the reasons for this reservation, the Working Group found that there were three principal reasons. First, there was some interviewee weariness as Ministry personnel and visiting consultants have repeatedly called upon the same individuals for virtually the same information. Second, some expressed annoyance and frustration with the fact that they seldom if ever see the reports written from the information given. Third, and probably most important, some were skeptical about anything positive and practical being forthcoming from the exercise itself.

Several groups were unconvinced that the commissioning of the development of an education reform strategy, of itself, meant that positive actions would follow. In their opinion the report could just be another document that they would hear about but never see, and which would have no further influence on anything. While this reservation, and the reasons

for it, were not universal it was so frequently and forcefully expressed that the Working Group could not but take note of it and its implications for the reform process itself.

In the interest of economy of space, and consistent with the way in which the information was collected, no attempt will be made here to identify the groups holding particular positions and views, nor will any attempt be made to quantify the frequency with which particular views were expressed. The views and visions of the groups interviewed will be reported under NINE headings.

1. OECS, the Future and Education

If there was one universal view that repeated itself irrespective of the country or the organization interviewed, it was that 'this small island cannot stand alone'. This sentiment was particularly strong in the six independent countries. In the opinion of many, the OECS is a permanent sub-regional unit whose exact political form may change but whose functional cooperation imperative will remain constant. To support this view persons of all political persuasions and economic interests pointed to the history of federation in the sub-region and the current movement in the world to greater regional integration. In their opinion both the history of the sub-region and the dynamic regional integration forces currently operative in the world will dictate greater unity in the OECS in the future.

The greatest obstacles to integration are seen as insularity, mini-nationalism and ultra chauvinism emphasizing the differences between territories. In this regard the current content of education is seen as a hindrance to future unity in that the education systems are organized on an insular basis and the curriculum socializes children to identify almost totally with their island. For sub-regional unity to materialize in the future education must be reformed to place island identity within the context of a broader regional identity.

Education defined in its widest sense is also perceived to be stacked against sub-regional and regional unity. Many persons expressed the fear that

with the recent developments in mass media, particularly cable television, in the sub-region, it is quite likely that persons in the several islands will know and identify more closely with America than with their island neighbours. For example, Dominicans may know more about the Chicago Bulls basketball team than the West Indies cricket team.

Most respondents took the view that the OECS sub-region had to be interpreted and understood in the wider context of Caribbean unity. OECS unity was a first step. As such the sub-region would be providing leadership to the rest of the region. Education reforms directed at promoting, fostering and nurturing unity and integration should focus on Caribbean identity and culture from the outset. Children and people within the OECS should be educated to perceive and conceive of themselves as Caribbean citizens and to understand and interpret themselves and society from the standpoint of Caribbean culture.

From this perspective the Working Group was often presented with a blurred vision of the OECS and the Caribbean. Respondents would speak about the sub-region and the region interchangeably. Accordingly, the OECS was projected within the context of the wider Caricom or even Caribbean unity. Clear delineations were not always forthcoming between the sub-region and the region. The impression was given that some things were seen to be feasible and desirable within the OECS and others within the wider Caribbean context.

The vision of the OECS/Caribbean put forward included:

- Free movement of people from state to state and an OECS Passport.
- No work permit needed by OECS nationals within the OECS.
- Free movement for educational opportunities.
- A Caribbean Common Market.
- A Caribbean Stock Exchange.
- A Caribbean Central Bank and common currency.
- Sharing of diplomatic representation worldwide by OECS territories.
- Closer OECS political unity, probably a unitary state, a federation or a confederation of sovereign states.
- Greater regional exchanges of information, technology and personnel, greater regional cooperation and many more regional competitions in sports and culture.

- The selection of OECS nationals or Caribbean nationals before recruiting outsiders to posts within the OECS and the Caribbean.

The corresponding and complementary vision of education to match this vision of the OECS/Caribbean can be summarized as follows:

- A unified, harmonized and standardized system of education throughout the region which shared common names and terms, structures, curricula and examinations. This would hold true from preschool to the tertiary level.
- An integrated system of tertiary education accredited by UWI.
- Greater cooperation and closer relationship with the University of the Virgin Islands.
- An OECS campus of the UWI.
- A common system of teacher education and training.
- A common system of accrediting and preparing professionals and para-professionals in all fields.

2. General Issues and Opinions

Several groups and individuals offered general comments and opinions about education in the OECS that were not specific to any level of the educational system. An attempt is made here to list, in an abbreviated form, the concerns expressed. No attempt is made to place these concerns in any order of priority or to rationalize any inconsistencies between them.

a) Concerns about the quality of education

There were mixed opinions on the quality of education in the OECS. The majority view was that the quality was poor. Several persons maintained that standards had fallen over the last 15 to 20 years and expressed dissatisfaction with the products of the school system. Greatest concerns were expressed with respect to the areas of reading and mathematics. Some claimed that this state of affairs resulted from the poor quality of teachers. Others claimed that many foreign ideas had been imported, especially by educators who had studied abroad, and that these had resulted in poor performance. New maths was cited as one example. Still others claimed that children were not being challenged, that their brains were being wasted for want of stimulating and difficult work.

A contrary but minority opinion was that several good things were being done in the school system but that these positive aspects of education were not receiving either the recognition or the credit they deserved. Evidence in support of this position was the performance of OECS students at UWI, UVI and in North American universities. In this view while there was room for continued development and improvement, several aspects of the current system were operating satisfactorily and should be appropriately recognized. Some of the persons expressing this position had children who went to school inside and outside the sub-region and had made their own comparisons of standards.

b) There were concerns that several negative socializing aspects of Colonial education were still operative

In the view of some persons education in the OECS continued to alienate many students as it demanded that they abandon their native cultural roots. To many the school system was a dead end system leading nowhere. The school system set out to fail most of the children, or label them as 'no-goods' before they became adolescents. In large measure schools communicated a sense of inferiority and not self-confidence.

Some observers noted that it was not that school leavers were unable to read, but rather that they could not work on their own without instruction from some authority. School leavers were often either intimidated by authority which they followed slavishly or, in a minority of cases, were rebellious. By and large, schools did not teach students their rights. They encouraged children to be consumers and not producers and they trained functionaries and not thinkers.

In other words the school system was still focussed on turning out submissive, compliant, passive workers mastering some skills that they could use in the employment of some company or Government agency. On the contrary schooling should be re-directed to develop the creative imagination, foster critical analysis, encourage problem solving, teach students their rights and responsibilities in a democratic state and promote initiative, enterprise and self reliance.

c) There were concerns that education was failing to meet the development needs of the countries

Several persons expressed this concern. In their view education had not been anticipating economic, social and political developments and had been slow in responding to changes taking place in

society. Hence there was a considerable time lag between the occurrence of change in society and the corresponding educational responses. For example, tourism and offshore financial services were growth sectors within several OECS economies. In large measure the general population had not been prepared for these shifts and do not fully appreciate the nature of these activities.

If the tourist is a guest, then citizens of the country must be confident hosts in order to welcome and entertain these guests. If the host is not confident and self assured, there is the danger of many undesirable side effects especially in circumstances where the majority of the citizens are black and the majority of the tourists are white.

In addition, both tourism and offshore financial services require persons with good human relations skills, good verbal and written communication skills, well developed problem solving skills and familiarity with and mastery of modern technology. The school systems of the OECS did not appear to be fully geared to prepare confident hosts or workers with all the skills needed to service these sectors.

d) There were concerns that the schools were lagging behind homes, factories and offices.

The physical plant of many schools did not appear conducive to learning. Many schools were still one room buildings like the factories of the 19th century. Many schools did not have telephones, photocopiers, duplicating machines, videos or even tape-decks not to speak of fax machines or computers. The schools were sliding into obsolescence in the face of advancing technology in homes, factories and offices.

e) There was a lament that the school systems of the sub-region appeared to be operating without a unifying and uplifting philosophy of education

Those sharing this lament observed that education currently seemed focussed on knowing, doing and having: knowledge, skills and material acquisition. Little emphasis appeared to be placed on being: on moral and spiritual virtues and values. At the same time family life was under siege, community life was breaking down and society seemed headed for chaos and confusion.

Education must address the issues of the formation of the person and the advancement of civilized society. It must address the issues of what kind of persons and what kind of society education should help to form and advance. Caribbean schools need to be guided by some noble vision of the Caribbean

person and Caribbean society formulated by some philosophy developed in the region. Teachers must be standard-bearers and exemplars of this philosophy. Books, teaching and learning materials must be written and produced to promote this philosophy through their content and illustrations. The mass media should project this philosophy to the wider community.

In the views of the observers expressing these concerns, the development of such a philosophy and the role of the education system in mobilizing the society to adhere to it, was the only effective means of combating the cultural penetration and annexation of the region.

- f) **The concern that many schools were enclaves within communities with little or no relationship between them was expressed**

In this view the school should be opened up to the community. It should become a community resource. It should belong to the community and serve the ends of lifelong education. The school must serve not only the education needs of the school population but the education needs of the out-of-school population through continuing education opportunities organized by communities themselves.

- g) **There was concern about Rastafarian children**

Some respondents were of the view that Rastafarian children were being denied educational opportunities or being discriminated against in the school system although this was contrary to the constitution and the education legislation of all OECS territories.

- h) **Concern that immigrant children were being denied education was expressed**

This concern was limited mainly to Antigua and B.V.I. In both territories there had been an influx of immigrant children some of whom are not legal residents. In both school systems there were significant numbers of such children. Concerns were raised with respect to the relationship that should exist between the school system and the Immigration Department. Should the school system insist on evidence of legal status in admitting children? Should the school system assist the Immigration Department in detecting illegal immigration through reports on their children's presence in the school system? Should the provision for education only be restricted to nationals and legal residents?

Those raising the concerns were of the view that a child should not be denied education because

of the legal status of its parents in the country. In addition, the schools' records should be confidential and not available to the Immigration Authorities. The issues raised take on sub-regional importance in the light of proposals for freedom of movement within the sub-region. Non-nationals could be the main source of growth of the school population in some countries.

3. Early Childhood Education

In all the territories preschools constituted a growth sector in education. There has been increasing demand for this level of education. The common explanation given was that there had been a breakdown of the extended family especially with respect to the fact that most grandmothers were young and working. Working mothers therefore could not fall back on the family for the care of young children. In addition, given the increasing importance of education, parents were convinced that an early start in school was vital to the success of their children.

Early Childhood Education is offered in a wide variety of arrangements in the OECS territories. For convenience these can be classified as follows:

- a) Private initiative with no Government involvement or regulation
B.V.I., Antigua and Barbuda and St Vincent and the Grenadines.
- b) Private initiative with Government regulation and monitoring.
Dominica and St Lucia.
- c) Partnership between private and public sectors.
Montserrat and St Kitts and Nevis
- d) Government as the major provider
Grenada.

The views and the visions expressed concerning the current state and future development of early childhood education took account of these varying arrangements in the different territories. There were some universal concerns irrespective of how this level was organized in any territory. These can be summarized as follows:

- The uneven distribution of the quality of education delivered and the poor quality which prevailed in many preschools
- The poor quality of general and professional education of the teachers and their high turnover.
- Too much formal work in preschools and the negative effect on the general development of the children so taught
- Parental misconception of what constituted good preschool education

- The low pay of the teachers at this level of the system.

Other concerns that reflected somewhat the specific organization of early childhood education in particular territories could be summarized as follows.

- The need for Government regulation and monitoring of preschools in order to protect the public and children.
- The need for Government assistance especially in the areas of curriculum materials, teacher training, scholarships and salary subsidies for teachers.
- Lack of systematic study of the preschool sector in order to determine its effectiveness.
- The need for coordination between the various regional agencies delivering assistance in preschool education: Servol, Winsave and the Regional Preschool Centre of UWI, Mona.
- Government trying to push the Churches out of preschool education through the introduction of tough regulations and taking over the preschool sector.
- The problem of coverage and equity in the provision of preschool education.

It was suggested that further and future reform of this level of education rested on the following five principles.

1. Partnership between Government, the private sector and parents in the provision of preschools. The prevailing opinion was that for the foreseeable future Governments would not be in a position to assume full responsibility for the education of children between the ages of three to five years. While it was accepted that parents would continue to pay fees at private schools, it was felt that Government should provide some preschools particularly in poor communities, or allow the creation of preschool departments in primary schools in such communities.
2. Standards and guidelines for early childhood education that all preschools would need to meet and abide by.
3. Government regulations and some monitoring mechanism that would ensure that the basic standards were met and guidelines followed by all preschools.
4. Developmental assistance particularly with teacher education, curriculum development, material development, parent education, early stimulation strategies and research. Such assistance

was seen to be critical and vital to the improvement of the quality of education being delivered. If private enterprise provided the schools then Government should give developmental assistance alongside its regulatory and monitoring roles.

5. Coordination between the agencies rendering assistance and the national providers delivering preschool education. It was recognized that over the last 25 years a great deal of pioneering work had been done in early childhood education in the Caribbean by the Centre for Early Childhood Education, UWI, Mona, Servol, Winsave and the Regional Preschool Centre, UWI, Mona. The OECS in reforming the preschool level could draw heavily on this work. However, there was need for coordination between the regional agencies and also among the national providers.

From the perspective of education reform, the consensus was that early childhood education, which was growing rapidly in the OECS, should be developed along the model pioneered in the Commonwealth Caribbean mainly through the work of the UWI assisted by the Bernard Van Leer Foundation and UNICEF. The only countries now operating outside the parameters of this model were Montserrat and Grenada, where Government had assumed responsibility for preschool education.

4. Primary Education

While everybody interviewed asserted the critical importance of primary education, less concerns were expressed about it compared to preschool, secondary and tertiary education. This could be because almost all OECS countries have provided universal primary education for the last 30 years. The comments, concerns and suggestions made about this level of the school system can be briefly summarized as follows:

- a) Many primary school buildings were either in poor condition, or only provided minimal conditions for learning. Many did not have staff rooms for teachers, proper sanitary facilities for students and teachers, proper storage facilities, separate classrooms, library facilities, resource rooms and adequate playfields. A very frequent recommendation was that the school building needed to be upgraded, modernized and improved.
- b) Instruction at the primary school remained focussed almost solely on authoritarian,

teacher centred strategies. There was need for instruction which required more independent learning, inquiry and student centred activities. This would, however, require the provision of more learning resources to facilitate the use of such strategies. In addition, modern technology, especially computers, needed to be added as part of the repertoire of instructional strategies in primary schools. School instruction should include modern media through which children were learning at home and in entertainment arcades.

- c) The greatest concern about primary schooling was expressed about its quality. Many respondents were particularly concerned about achievement in reading and mathematics. They cited instances of children leaving school functionally illiterate or with very limited facility in written expression. In St Lucia and Dominica the difficulties of teaching English to children speaking a French creole were pointed out and the need expressed for research to develop appropriate teaching and learning strategies. Several groups felt that schools were concentrating on teaching the skill of reading but not doing enough about the habit of reading. There was the recognition that much more needed to be done to promote the habit of reading especially through school libraries and the public library system. Many teachers expressed the view that the primary school curriculum was being overloaded through the pressures of special interest groups and that this was to the detriment of the teaching and learning of the basics. In addition, a lot of regular instructional time was lost to special interest activities which took up days or weeks. By seeking to use schools to raise consciousness or indoctrinate children into certain outlooks, much time was lost that previously went to teaching English and mathematics. Concerns were also expressed about the quality of education in small schools, mostly in rural areas, where one teacher taught several grades. The quality of education in overcrowded urban schools was also a cause of concern.
- d) Many parents were critical of the fact that the primary school was organized for the

so-called normal child. In their view a differentiated approach was needed which made provision for the following broad groups of children:

- the specially gifted
- the average
- the slow learners who would accomplish the same goals as other children but simply took longer
- children with disabilities - physical, mental, learning, emotional and communication disorders.

In the view of these parents, the organization of instruction in primary schools needed to take account of these broad categories of children. In addition, some primary schools should be equipped with special education facilities manned by appropriately trained teachers. The primary school system also needed to be supported by specialized services which would carry out regular screening of children for disabilities, conduct diagnostic testing, remedial and prescriptive teaching; make interventions and give assistance to families through social welfare services; and permit regular screening of children for health, nutritional and related problems.

- e) Teacher quality was commented on from several different perspectives. There was great concern about the large numbers of untrained teachers that manned the school systems of several territories. Many groups and individuals maintained that pre-service professional training and certification should become mandatory. Some teachers expressed the view that the presence of so many unqualified teachers in the school system undermined the professional status of teachers. Accordingly teacher education institutions should be expanded to provide for pre-service teacher training. In some countries some principals were of the view that there was little difference in performance between trained and unqualified teachers. In those countries much criticism was levelled at the teachers' colleges and the quality of their output. In other countries satisfaction was expressed about the competence and quality of the trained teachers and the work of the

teachers' colleges. Criticisms of the work of the teachers' colleges were more prevalent than statements of satisfaction. In several countries the recommendation was made that an internship year should be added, to the two intramural years in college, before teachers were certified. This internship year would allow teachers to learn to teach in the context of having executive responsibility for a class and in the real circumstances of professional responsibility. It was also felt that ongoing in-service training was necessary. Also that there should be some requirement that teachers undertake some professional upgrading after about seven to ten years in the classroom.

- f) In all countries some group or individual made the suggestion that primary education should be standardized in the sub-region. This would be with respect to:
 - The goals and objectives that primary education should achieve.
 - The organization of the systems, including the names given to the different levels and the grades within those levels.
 - The curriculum and the subjects taught.
 - The books used.
 - The tests and examinations.

Parents in most territories were particularly adamant about the standardization of textbooks. Many made the point that if they have three children of different ages in primary school, then the younger ones should be able to inherit and use the books of the older ones they followed through the system. The constant changes and different books used, together with the high cost of books currently, constituted an untenable situation. As far as some parents were concerned if the reform exercise only accomplished the standardization of textbooks used in schools in each country and within the sub-region it would have accomplished a major goal.

5. Secondary Education

Secondary education attracted the greatest amount of comments from the respondents interviewed. This seems to be related to several factors the different stages of development of secondary schooling between the different territories, the diver-

sity of organizational structures and strategies, the importance accorded to secondary education and the varying philosophies held by providers and participants in the several countries.

In order to present the views expressed about secondary education it is necessary to restate the current differences in the provision of secondary schooling in OECS countries. Countries could be classified into three categories:

- a) Those providing universal secondary education - B.V.I., St Kitts and Nevis and Montserrat.
- b) Those selecting for secondary schooling almost all children who have mastered the basic functional skills at the primary level - Antigua and Barbuda.
- c) Those selecting students based on the number of school places available at the secondary level - Dominica, Grenada, St Lucia and St Vincent and the Grenadines.

Categories a) and b) constitute the Leeward Islands and category c) the Windward Islands. All countries, however, provide school places for every child up to age 15 or 16 years. The difference is that in the countries offering universal secondary education the children are transferred from primary to secondary school by about age 14 while in the other countries those not selected for secondary are kept in the senior departments or junior secondary departments of all age schools.

In the five countries not offering universal secondary education the issues of access and equity were frequently raised. In addition, the Common Entrance Examination was severely criticized and blamed for most of the perceived ills of primary education and some of the ills of secondary schooling.

In the three countries offering universal secondary education concerns were expressed and problems posed over what to do with children who at the end of primary schooling are still functionally illiterate. Automatic promotion to secondary school poses instructional problems for the secondary schools and diminishes the status of the schools receiving such children.

B.V.I. has responded by requiring children to take and pass the Primary 5 examination before being transferred to secondary. Children are allowed to take this examination up to age 14 years. If they fail at this age they are transferred to the LASP programme, which while housed in a secondary school is not part of the secondary programme. The LASP programme is designed to make children func-

tionally literate. Having accomplished this standard they are then transferred to the secondary programme.

Throughout the eight territories concerns were expressed about the quality of secondary education. These concerns were much more strongly voiced in some countries, e.g. Grenada, than in others but the concerns were general. A particular area of concern was the large numbers of children leaving secondary school without certification. While there was strong support for CXC, as a good examination, there was deep anxiety over the relatively small proportion of students leaving secondary school with four subjects at General Proficiency 1 or 2.

Students were seen to be in need of improving their study skills and study habits. Teachers were perceived to be in need of more appropriate training and upgrading. However, many persons were of the view that the system itself was at fault. In their view both CXC and the Ministries of Education needed to look again at the system which seemed designed to fail the vast majority of students. The GCE it was felt was a much easier examination to pass.

The biggest part of the problem, however, was that whether the territory was providing universal secondary education or not, the reality was that the majority of the students of secondary school age were not being prepared for CXC. Several different views were expressed about what should be done for such students. The different views expressed largely reflected different approaches and philosophies of education. The various views could be collapsed into three major varieties.

1. That those students who were not perceived to possess the academic ability to do CXC should be given some sort of technical and vocational training. This was a very popular opinion among teachers throughout the OECS. Several countries appear to have implemented programmes along these lines. For example, Montserrat in 1986 reformed its system along these lines. All students are given a general programme in the first three years at the end of which they are separated into two groups those preparing for CXC and those channelled into the prevocational group. Approximately 40 per cent are in the CXC group and 60 per cent in the prevocational Group. Both groups are then instructed for two years. The prevocational programme includes computer skills and work experience in business enterprises. Parents in Montserrat expressed a great deal of reservation about the rigid separation of the students

and the labelling that inevitably occurred. The Chamber of Commerce while commending the students who came for work experience, for their deportment and dress, expressed reservation about their level of understanding and grammar. They observed that while many students had mastered word processing skills they lacked basic academic knowledge and understanding needed to successfully operate in the office. They suggested that the secondary school could concentrate more on general education and less on skills which could be easily acquired at a later stage.

2. That secondary school should be made much more flexible in its instructional organization and much more sympathetic to slower learners. From this perspective secondary schooling was far too rigid and inflexible in its organization. Students had to enter at 11 or 12 years, follow five years of instruction and meet a single standard in all subjects. The system was also unsympathetic to students who required more time to reach the same standards as others. Proponents of this view would like to see at least two standards at which students could graduate from secondary school and more flexible instructional arrangements for achieving these standards. In their view secondary education should aim to make students flexible and trainable. It should also attempt to inculcate wholesome attitudes, including the work ethic and it should encourage students to develop the habit of punctuality. Secondary education should also orient students to the world of work especially to the main occupations and industries in which they were likely to be employed. At present too many students were leaving school with very unrealistic expectations about the world of work, especially about what was required of them and what they should expect to receive in terms of remuneration. Many seem to feel that they had a right to a job but no obligation to be worthy of their pay. It was also felt that secondary schooling had made many school leavers unwilling to accept the jobs that were available to them.
3. That secondary education should be re-conceptualized as general education. Specific skills training should be part of post-secondary education or an on-the-job undertaking. In addition, secondary education should focus on the personal development needs of adolescents. From this perspective secondary education was

too focussed on either status and prestige or producing functionaries for the labour force. Accordingly, it was preoccupied with an intellectual and social elite on the one hand and on the other hand engaged in the fallacy of early vocational specialization for the majority of students who were labelled failures. Proponents of this position advocated a re-conceptualization that would pay more attention to the development of students as persons. Guidance and Counselling would be an essential part of the infrastructure of secondary schools. The curriculum would be focussed on general education: communication skills including foreign language learning; the humanities; science, mathematics and technology; and personal development activities. Students would receive School Leaving Certificates attesting to their record of school achievement and character as well as CXC certificates. In all countries concerns were expressed about the level and appropriateness of training of school personnel. The view was that secondary schools had increased significantly in size and complexity over the last two decades but that there was no systematic programme for training principals as school managers and instructional leaders nor any requirement that they be so trained. This was seen as a deficiency of the current system. An even greater weakness was the inadequate training levels of the teachers. Very few graduate teachers had professional training. Most qualified teachers in secondary schools had originally been trained for the primary school. In some systems, school leavers with 'O' and 'A' levels comprised a significant proportion of the teachers. The consensus throughout the sub-region was that a programme for training secondary school teachers was urgently needed.

Numerous other concerns were shared with the Working Group. A mere listing of them will have to suffice:

- The high cost of textbooks and constant changes by the schools
- Inadequate welfare support for students from poor homes.
- Constant interruption of the instructional programme of the schools by teachers who were called to workshops and seminars, special events and special emphasis days and weeks

- The school day being too short: five and a half hours should be the standard school day.
- The high turnover of teachers.
- The lack of proper work ethics and wholesome attitudes of school leavers entering the world of work.
- Weak communication skills as revealed in letters of application.
- The poor articulation of the school system with the world of work.
- Decline in clubs and societies in the schools.
- The need to reintroduce school fees for those who could pay.
- The heavy work load of CXC for teachers and students.
- Children being allowed to drop mathematics in Third Form.
- Obsolete equipment in the laboratories and workshops.

From the concerns, comments and views expressed by those interviewed, secondary education will certainly be one of the most contentious and controversial elements in any reform strategy developed. Conflicting and opposing views and outlooks were strongly held.

6. Tertiary and Adult Education

Tertiary and adult education are both broad areas. They are also predisposed to sectoral interests some of which are quite narrow. Respondents therefore offered a wide variety of comments, criticisms and suggestions which are not easily summarized.

Generally speaking it was felt that tertiary and adult education were underdeveloped areas in the OECS. To date the concentration and focus had been on the education of children and adolescents and therefore on the primary and secondary levels. The tradition had been for people to seek tertiary education outside the OECS. Up until the 1950s the region only had one teachers' college, the Leeward Islands Teachers' College located in Antigua. All other tertiary institutions in the sub-region had been established since the 1960s. The tradition had also been that adults were beyond schooling.

Several persons were of the view that the small size and relative neglect of tertiary education was the main reason why it had been necessary to import top managers from outside the sub-region, and why teachers were attracted away from the classroom

into the civil service and private sector. Further economic development without expanding tertiary level education would mean that top and even middle managers would be recruited from abroad in increasing numbers while nationals would be confined to the lower and some middle level positions. To adopt such a strategy would be implicitly to marginalize nationals in their own countries. This was totally unacceptable.

The alternative would be to place inadequately educated and trained locals into middle and top positions. This, it was felt, could risk the competitiveness of the sub-region in global competition. Addressing the issue of tertiary education was the only constructive approach.

The views and the visions in this area were voiced under three overlapping headings: non-formal adult education, skills training and formal tertiary education. For the sake of convenience they will be reported under those headings, although the point was made and accepted that tertiary and adult education should be articulated, interrelated and treated as a comprehensive whole.

Non-Formal Adult Education

Non-formal adult education programmes, from the observations made to the Working Group, tended to be organized by both the Government and private bodies around single issues. Most Governments had mounted programmes related to Drug Awareness, Health and Nutrition, and Family Planning and Family Life Education. Private organizations had organized courses related to their areas of interest. For example, trade unions had organized courses in industrial relations for their members and credit unions had organized courses in credit and the operations of credit unions. Governments, trade unions and other non-governmental organizations had organized literacy classes for adults who were not functionally literate.

In addition to these short courses related to single issues, continuing education classes were offered in several countries to adults who were functionally literate and who wanted to upgrade their educational levels by taking formal examinations: CXC, GCE 'O' and 'A' levels, RSA, etc. In several countries the University Centre played a leading role in organizing such classes. Also the Centre offered university courses through UWIDITE. Invariably, some schools and teachers offered tuition on a private evening class basis. In the case of Grenada, the Ministry of Education initially organized and ran the continuing education programme but had recently passed it on to the National College. Increasingly,

as multi-disciplinary colleges were being created continuing education was being regarded as an important outreach activity.

The observation was made that all of these programmes were small. They served relatively few persons who tended to be urban residents. The administrative units of these programmes were usually understaffed. In addition, they sometimes overlapped in terms of both students and teachers.

In the view of some persons, in the future development of non-formal adult education in the OECS, consideration should be given to either the creation of some national institution charged with coordinating private and public efforts in adult education or mandating either the University Centre or the Multi-Disciplinary College to undertake this role. The effective delivery of non-formal adult education was seen to be in need of coordination and cooperative agreements since the current arrangements gave the impression of fragmentation and disorganization.

A contrary view was that the need and demand for continuing education would outstrip supply. A multiplicity of providers were therefore needed to mount programmes. Individuals and institutions should be free to organize and provide programmes once they could find students willing to enroll. Moreover, the adults desiring this type of education should pay for it and should benefit from competition between providers.

Some persons were of the view that new modes of delivering adult education needed to be explored in the form of distance teaching using low technology; the use of radio and television; and evening classes in school buildings that were closed by 4.00 p.m. The OCOD distance teaching project allowing unqualified teachers resident in rural areas to sit CXC was a model that may have wide application.

Specific Skills Training

Discussions with Planning Units and Economic Development Divisions of Ministries of Finance revealed that there was general consensus in the sub-region about the key sectors in the future growth of OECS economies. The economic planners were of the view that tourism, agriculture and or fisheries, commerce, light manufacturing done mainly by small businesses, and construction would be the key areas of economic growth over the next 15 to 20 years in the OECS. One country, B.V.I., saw off-shore financial services also as an important growth sector. In all economic forecasts, tourism was predicted to be the main area of economic growth.

Discussions with officials of Ministries related to these sectors and organizations representing the businesses and professionals operating in these sectors, revealed very similar approaches in terms of how education and training were conceived relative to these sectors. Hotel and Tourist Associations, Ministry of Agriculture officials, Chambers of Commerce and small businesses were of very similar minds. They regarded training and technology as vital to success in the particular sector.

The scenario given could be summarized in general terms as follows:

1. They did not expect or desire the school system to prepare everybody to work in the sector, but would prefer if everybody had some appreciation and understanding of the importance of the contribution of that sector to the general economy and society. Most agriculturalists and Hospitality Industry personnel were particularly strong on this point. Some agriculturalists were of the view that the attempt to indoctrinate all children into agriculture, through the establishment of school gardens, may do more harm than good. They saw such a programme as alienating many students from the field of agriculture since agriculture could not possibly absorb even a half of those indoctrinated. They were also of the view that commercial agriculture required relatively few people, but those persons needed to be well educated and trained and should have a strong science background as well as an understanding of business. Commercial agriculture required specialists with a love for agriculture and not hordes of untrained amateurs.
2. That the secondary schools would produce for the sector persons who were
 - Literate, numerate and well grounded in general education.
 - Flexible, adaptable and trainable.
 - Disposed to and interested in working in the sector.
 - Oriented to the nature of the industry and its requirements in terms of the product, the consumers, the workers and the companies.
 - Possess generic skills related to that industry.
3. That Technical and Vocational Education and Training, TVET, would consist of three main components:

- Specialized skills training on the job through short modular courses organized by the particular industry.
- Advanced skills training and middle management education and training offered through diploma and certificate courses in tertiary institutions in the sub-region.
- High level management and technical education offered through universities inside and outside the region.

The general scenario for the delivery of TVET was more or less consistent with the Caricom Regional Strategy for TVET. It could well be that the existence of the general consensus resulted from the relatively recent participation of some persons in the development of that strategy and the newly created National Training Boards of which several of the persons interviewed were members.

There were, however, a few criticisms of the Caricom framework. Some respondents felt that some elements of the Caricom Strategy were more suited for more industrialized countries and therefore not as relevant and critical in the OECS. Also that the focus seemed more on imitating what had been done elsewhere than in fostering creative, imaginative and problem solving capabilities.

Concern was expressed that there seemed to be an overemphasis on skills training to the detriment of understanding the worker as a person. In their view all skills training, know-how training, in any industry and company should be accompanied by know-why education. Workers should know why and why not. They should understand the industry they worked in, the company they worked for and in what ways their work advanced the goals of the company, the industry and the society. Work must be understood as the means by which the goals of society were advanced, and not merely as a means of earning a living or making profit.

Some persons pointed to duplication and overlap between various TVET programmes. Generally speaking, persons in the various countries reported favourably on the Youth Skills Project initiated by OAS and funded by USAID. In the view of the vast majority this project had succeeded in getting youths to learn job skills in contrast to several past efforts that had failed. However, it was pointed out that Multipurpose Workshops, providing TVET for 13 to 16 year olds in schools during the day and adults in the evening, were catering for the same persons and general clientele in some communities. The implementation of new projects in vocational education

did not seem to have taken account of the Youth Skills project and its relative success.

In most communities there was need for only one programme and not two, yet both were operative at the same time. The point was made that there had been a mushrooming of TVET projects both in the schools and in the communities with no apparent attempt to rationalize them in the long term. The high cost involved raised questions about sustainability after the projects were completed and local sources had to bear the financial responsibility.

Representatives of small businesses made the point that usually they were unable to mount training programmes for the workers by virtue of their small size. While agreeing to the principle that they should provide training, they were at a disadvantage compared to large companies in mounting in-house programmes. Cooperative programmes, involving cost recovery from the firms, seemed the more feasible approach.

Some employers made the point that throughout the sub-region the Canadian Training Award Programme, CTAP, now offers customized short term training courses that were organized in rapid response to their requests. Moreover the courses arranged were affordable. Concern was expressed that CTAP's tenure in the region might not be long term. Therefore, consideration should be given to the creation of such a capacity in the sub-region in the long term.

There was great division on the question of who should pay for TVET programmes. Some private sector persons and some Government officials took the position that Government should pay. The essence of their argument was that investors are attracted to the OECS by the claim that these countries could provide a well educated and trained labour force. Government had both the responsibility and commitment to provide such trained persons as part of both the inducement and the infrastructure of new investments.

A contrary argument was that the private sector benefitted enormously from public sector investment but made very little contribution in return. The general pattern was to induce away from Government, or those companies that trained staff, trained personnel by offering them higher salaries. The requirement of all companies to take responsibility for human resource development was essential to expanding the pool of trained personnel. It was also a corporate duty. Those companies not willing to train their staff might not be worth the inducement to set up business in the country.

A third view was that the cost of training should be borne largely by the employee being trained, by way of low salaries during the period of training. The TVET programme was indeed just another version of old-fashioned apprenticeship.

Formal Tertiary Education

The views and visions concerning the development of formal tertiary education in the OECS can be summarized briefly as follows:

- Expand tertiary education in the sub-region.
- Other OECS countries should follow the lead of Antigua and Barbuda and St Lucia and amalgamate single discipline institutions into multi-disciplinary colleges.
- Network these multi-disciplinary colleges following the concept of Centres of Specialization. To accomplish this it would be necessary to establish a coordinating mechanism which would establish criteria for mounting programmes in the various colleges. Colleges would need to be monitored to determine their compliance with the criteria.
- Amend the Education Regulations to give colleges, through a Board of Governors, some autonomy in the appointment of staff, setting of salary levels, fund raising, other income generating schemes and the discipline of staff and students.
- The colleges should establish close working relationships between Government departments, the private sector, professional organizations, commodity associations and other interest groups, with respect to the content of programmes to be offered in educating and training students for the workplace.
- All students should be computer literate prior to graduation.
- Loan and scholarship schemes should be established for needy students.
- Colleges should establish linkages with private companies so that they are able to have access to state-of-the-art technology needed for the training of advanced students.
- Encourage peer tutoring and study circles as a means of improving standards and building interpersonal skills among students.

- Introduce programmes to teach entrepreneurship to students in all areas.
- Improve the basic infrastructure of colleges namely, libraries, resource centres, laboratories, workshops, residential accommodation for rural and out of island students.
- Introduce new modalities for delivering tertiary education: evening classes, 'day release, distance education, vacation courses, modular instruction and the use of modern media.
- Articulate tertiary education in the sub-region with UWI degree programmes so that over the next 10 to 15 years most Bachelor degree programmes can be offered in their entirety in colleges within the sub-region. The Faculties of Arts, Natural Sciences, Social Sciences, Education and Agriculture would increasingly become Graduate Schools.
- Colleges in the sub-region should also establish working relationships with the University of the Virgin Islands and universities in Puerto Rico.

In addition to these views and visions about the future development of tertiary education there were some very strong views expressed about existing aspects of tertiary education that warrant report in greater detail.

1. In almost every country several groups observed that scholarships given for study abroad, by past and present Governments, involved political patronage. Some capable students were victimized, for their parents' actual or perceived political allegiance. Some of the criticisms levelled were against past regimes, others against present Governments. Also some of the sentiments expressed were extremely bitter. Parents, students, teachers, private sector representatives and politicians combined to make this charge. Probably the most telling comment was made by an opposition spokesman in one country who, while expressing a sense of outrage of the victimization of persons in the award of scholarships, observed that opposition parties often made this charge as the opposition but proceeded to do the same thing when elected as the Government. In his view the only sensible thing to do was to put the award of scholarships totally outside the control and influence of politicians. He was of the opinion that the pressure on the politicians to satisfy strong party

supporters was as important a factor as vindictiveness in punishing opponents. Politicians were often not punishing opponents, so much as rewarding loyal supporters. While the Working Group is in no position to verify or dismiss this allegation against successive Governments, it would appear that any reform of tertiary education should address this issue. Whether the charge is true or false, there would seem to be a good case for placing the award of scholarships on a basis that would engender public confidence and banish the slightest hint of political influence.

2. In both Antigua and St Lucia the observation was made that students who had been successful in the First Year of a Degree Programme of UWI while studying at the sub-regional institutions, were finding it difficult to go on to a campus of the University to complete the degree. Student groups pointed out the frustration and hardship created by these circumstances. In both countries the matter was being studied by the Ministry of Education, with a view to addressing the issue. However, the basic problem was financial: paying the economic costs of UWI. The main point made implicitly by the respondents was that while it was very possible to find educational means for increasing the flow of developed human resources, and while students and teachers may respond admirably to the challenges posed, the entire operation could be jeopardized and undermined by factors outside the control of teachers and students. Also the additional resources needed to sustain any new programme need to be anticipated from the outset.
3. There were repeated criticisms of the UWI, while acknowledging its importance and impact. Some of the criticisms were:
 - That the UWI had existed since 1948 but Caribbean people could not cover a cricket pitch to keep off the rain.
 - Grenada had been planting and exporting nutmegs for the last 100 years using the same technology and that the establishment of Faculties of Agriculture and Engineering at St Augustine had made no difference.
 - The UWI did not have a programme in Tourism therefore it was necessary to turn to North American institutions for training of personnel for the industry.

- Generally speaking, little research had been done by UWI on pressing problems in the OECS.
- That the University had been tardy in responding to initiatives suggested by sub-regional sources and in some instances the University had appeared less than enthusiastic in their responses.
- That graduates of the University in some fields seemed more disposed to being advisors and researchers than operators in the field.

What seemed to be indicated was that there was a significant body of opinion within the OECS that perceived the regional university at a distance. In some instances this had resulted in misconceptions. For example, the statement that UWI did not have a programme in Tourism was not factual. Measures to bring the University closer to the sub-region and ensure greater responsiveness to felt needs seem to be urgently required.

7. Terms and Conditions of Service of Teachers

In most countries there were very strong statements concerning the terms and conditions of service of teachers; however, in two countries very few concerns were expressed. This divergence seemed to have been related to the relative conditions between the countries and the awareness of those differences. The concerns expressed about the terms and conditions of service of teachers can be summarized as follows:

- a) The status, recognition and morale of teachers. In the view of many the status of teachers had declined appreciably and significantly over the last 30 years. Teachers did not now command the respect they did in the past. Some observers made the point that even where sterling work was done this was not always recognized. Probably, the work of some teachers was more recognized in specific communities than in the general public or in official circles. This, combined with other factors, had led to low morale among teachers.
- b) One way of helping to restore the status of teachers was to separate the teaching service from the civil service, establish a teaching service commission with its own regulations different from General Orders and pay teachers more than civil servants

Interestingly, the opposite view was expressed in St Lucia where teachers are not civil servants. The teaching service has been separate from the civil service in St Lucia and some persons blamed this separation for the fact that teachers were paid less than civil servants in St Lucia. In other words the solution proposed in countries where teachers are civil servants, was blamed for the low pay and status of teachers in St Lucia, where teachers are not civil servants.

- c) The working conditions of teachers especially in primary schools were seen by many persons as part of the reason for low morale and low status of teachers. In some schools teachers have no desks, no storage facilities, no rest room although the vast majority of teachers were females, no proper sanitary conveniences and no staff room. Improving the working conditions of teachers in the schools was seen as a critical factor in improving morale and status.
- d) To most groups and individuals who commented on this matter the critical issue was pay. The most important action was to substantially improve teachers' salaries. Some of the most vocal comments were that lip-service was paid to education and teachers and that the insincerity of the lip-service was exposed on the issue of teachers' salaries. If teachers and education were really perceived as important as everybody was making them out to be then the poor salaries would not obtain. To these persons and groups it mattered not where teaching was - part of the civil service or on its own - teachers should be reclassified placing them at a salary advantage relative to other public servants of comparable qualifications.
- e) Part of the problem, according to some respondents, was that there was no career path in teaching in the OECS. There were only three ranks in the primary school: unqualified teacher, qualified teacher and principal. As countries experienced success in replacing unqualified teachers only two ranks would remain: qualified teacher and principal. Most of the teachers and principals were young, hence most qualified teachers had no promotion to

look forward to in the teaching service. Among secondary school teachers four ranks existed: unqualified, qualified, graduate and principal. Some countries had introduced heads of departments and vice-principals. But in some cases these were positions in name only with no recognition in salary or where salary differentials existed they were sufficiently small to be virtually meaningless. In addition, there was no differential between principals of large and small schools. The critics of the present state of the teaching service pointed to the fact that its organization was extremely flat. As such it did not encourage young teachers who qualified at an early age to remain in the service. As far as they were concerned the teaching service had retained the same structure it had when the vast majority of teachers were unqualified and those who received training did so at an advanced age and could easily move into positions as principals. The teaching service had to be reorganized to accommodate the concepts of pre-service training of teachers and promotion prospects for such teachers.

f) Some union representatives and other persons concerned about the welfare of teachers, were of the view that salary increases by themselves could not address the problem of remunerating teachers. Benefits such as pension, leave, health insurance, and scholarships for further study were of vital importance. In some countries, with the introduction of Social Security, the regular civil service pension schemes were restricted to persons who had entered the service before a specified date. In the opinion of several young teachers interviewed by the Working Group, no Social Security scheme in the world had been able to offer adequate pensions by itself. They therefore had no intention of remaining in the teaching service to experience the inadequacy of what had been proposed. In one country the situation had been reversed and the regular civil servant pension scheme had been restored.

g) Other concerns can be listed as follows:

- Teachers needed to undertake periodic refresher courses.
- Teacher exchanges with England and North America were fine, but similar schemes were needed within the OECS.
- The high rate of turnover in the teaching profession especially among secondary school teachers.
- General Orders were obsolete and dysfunctional as a means of regulating the teaching service. New regulations were needed.
- The qualifications required for entry into teaching were too low. Many of the persons entering teaching were too young. They could not command the respect of modern parents. Pre-service training of teachers should be introduced as mandatory.
- Fund raising in order to run the schools was a great burden that teachers should not have to bear in addition to their other responsibilities.
- Unmarried female teachers should not be discriminated against in case of maternity as was presently the case.
- Some pay incentives should be given to teachers who were performing well.
- Some evaluation of teachers was required and necessary but this could not be the same as for the rest of the civil service.
- Teacher moonlighting should be regulated.
- The arbitrary transfer of teachers in the school system undermined morale and status within the profession.

8. Administration and Management of the Education System

Several concerns were expressed about the administration and management of education in the OECS. These can be summarized as follows:

- a) Several respondents were of the view that although the administration of education in their country was centralized, this was necessary and desirable because the system itself was small. From this perspective the issue of decentralization was an irrelevance in the OECS. The greatest needs in the OECS were the training of the managers in the schools and in the Ministries and the systems to ensure enlightened practice by them. The opposing view was not centred around the issue of decentralization so much as

democratization. Whether the system was centralized or not some people maintained that they wanted a say in the decision making process. The issue of a National Council was repeatedly raised. In fact, the system in Montserrat has been reformed and a National Council established. Some persons were of the view that each school should have a Board of Management, composed of members elected by a wide variety of interests and duly appointed by the Ministry. These Boards would have some say in the operation of the school in the particular community. The situation was complicated by the fact that in some countries the schools were run by Denominational Boards. However, several persons observed that only some denominations operated effective boards. In large measure having responsibility for several schools made the boards appear remote from many schools. Largely the system operated on the strength of the Manager of the Schools appointed by some Denominational Boards. The essence of the reform needed was for parents, teachers and communities to have a greater say in the operation of the school in their community, in which they worked and which their children attended. Central to the dissatisfaction was the assertion that almost all the important decisions were made by a few people at the top and then handed down to teachers and parents with little discussion. A more participatory model of management was deemed to be mandatory.

- b) Several youth and student groups felt that students should be represented on Boards and should be part of the decision making process. It was felt that all secondary and tertiary institutions should have student councils and that these councils should be consulted on all important matters. This was seen as essential in the strengthening of democracy in each country.
- c) The point was made that in several countries there were no regulations defining the roles of various officers - Permanent Secretary, Chief Education Officer, Education Officers, Principals, Teachers, Boards, Managers etc. In the absence of such clear definition of roles

and powers then the management of education was very arbitrary and sometimes very subjective. The fact that this was not always contested was evidence of the fear and uncertainty induced by this state of affairs. What was desirable were clear regulations defining roles and powers, establishing checks and balances and ensuring accountability.

- d) There were a few persons who were very critical of the fact that the Minister of Education was the final authority on several issues in education. In their view education was too important to be left to the judgement of a single person. Some expressed the view that education should be taken out of the hands of the politicians. A contrary view was that the Minister was the person who was accountable to the people through the parliament and the ballot box. Within a democratic system, it should be the person who was accountable to the people, the electorate, who should be the final arbiter of issues.
- e) Several persons were forceful in their assertion that the administration and management of education had become highly politicized by being drawn into the arena of partisan contests. The Working Group could well understand the validity of this observation in that several opposition parties declined the invitation to meet with the Working Group, on the basis that if they disclosed their plans to the Working Group, their ideas would get back to the Government who could implement them as their own. Such one-upmanship in education appears to be perceived by several politicians as vital to success at the polls. Another charge was that of political interference in the running of the schools leading to some breakdown of discipline. In some instances this interference was invited by parents and teachers and had to be declined by principled Ministers of Education. It was also charged that political interference extended to purely professional matters, such as examinations and the placement of children in schools. Those bemoaning the politicization of education held to the view that education should be a matter of national consensus and that the role of

politicians should be confined solely to matters of policy. In their view these ideals were breached to the detriment of education.

- f) Some persons were of the view that there was great need to train the central managers of the education system. The centralized nature of the system was tolerable provided the managers were properly trained. Particular concern was expressed about the training of education officers for the job. In the view of some, supervision of schools had deteriorated dramatically in recent decades as changes occurred in the personnel undertaking the supervision.
- g) The Church/State partnership came in for criticism from both sides. In the view of some persons in some Ministries the Church was exercising enormous influence compared to the quantum of their contribution to the operation of the school system. While the reasons for this influence could be understood from a historical perspective, they had little currency at the present time. On the other hand, there were members of Churches who were of the view that some Governments appeared to be anxious to control everything. That Government was attempting to opt out of the partnership without actually saying so. A third view was that the argument between Church and State about degree of influence was an irrelevance because for the future education had to be understood as a partnership. What the Church and the State had to understand was that there were not only two partners. In other words the historic hegemony of the State and the Church in education in the Caribbean had to come to an end. The challenge of the future was to identify all the other partners and bring them together with the Church and State in a constructive relationship.

9. The Financing of Education

The financing of education attracted more attention in some countries than in others. This seemed to have been related to the perception of how adequately the education system was being funded and the relationship between the perceived problems and resources. The views and visions expressed can be summarized as follows:

a) Government Subvention to Education

The view was expressed that Government subventions to education in the various countries were declining in real terms although annual budgets gave the illusion of increases. In addition, even where funds were budgeted this did not mean that they would be disbursed from the Ministry of Finance to Education. Actual expenditure could show an even greater decline than budgeted allocations suggested.

Some persons expressed the view that the decline in Government subventions had resulted in significant decline in services in the education system. In fact what was taking place was the silent and creeping privatization of the schools system as parents, teachers and others assumed the financial responsibility shed by Government. The advocates of this point of view were of the opinion that at least 25 per cent of the total Government budget should be allocated to education. This should be a fixed proportion each year.

Another issue was that subventions of the Ministries of Education to schools were not equitable. Some prestige schools commanded a disproportionate amount of the subvention. While there could be some justification for treating Church schools differently from Government schools, it was intolerable that some Government schools could receive almost double the subvention of others offering the same programme.

b) Re-Introduction of School Fees

Some people were of the opinion that the financial crisis in education could only be solved by the re-introduction of school fees at the secondary level. Many parents paid high fees for their children to attend private schools at the primary level only to be relieved of any financial responsibility at the secondary level. These advocates were adamant that these parents were able and willing to pay for the secondary education of their children.

Some individuals were of the view that nominal fees should be re-introduced. Their concern was that some parents could not afford high fees, but they disagreed in principle with the concept of free secondary education. They believed that the direct beneficiaries of education should pay for it even if the fees were nominal and unable to cover the cost.

The observation was made that free secondary education was not fully established in several states in that Government paid subsidies, in different forms, to private schools and allowed them to continue to charge fees. The current dual system therefore needed to be rationalized and the most realistic

course was to re-introduce fees in Government schools.

c) Compensation from the U.S. and Canada

A few respondents observed that the U.S. and Canadian economies benefitted significantly from persons who were educated and trained in the OECS. Both the U.S. and Canada should compensate the OECS for this by making significant contributions to the development and running of the education system particularly at the secondary and tertiary levels.

d) Inadequate Contribution from the Private Sector

Some persons were of the view that employers and businesses benefitted enormously from the education system but were not making a sufficient contribution in return. Local companies were compared unfavorably with companies operating in the Industrialized countries with respect to their contribution to education. The point was made that local subsidiaries needed to follow the example of their parent companies.

e) The Introduction of Special Taxes for Education

Several groups advocated the introduction of special taxes to finance educational reform and development. The suggestions included:

- a direct tax on income,
- a tax on luxury items,
- a tax on all imported goods,
- a special annual fee charged to every registered company, and
- a tax of 0.5 per cent on all withdrawals from saving accounts in the banks and other financial institutions.

These special taxes should not be part of the consolidated funds of Government. The point was also made that private schools should also benefit from these taxes since some of the persons paying the taxes would have their children in private schools. On the other hand, some persons were against the introduction of any new taxes for whatever purpose.

f) Parent/Teachers Associations and Community Contributions

Parent/teachers associations were recognized to be making a significant contribution to the operation of schools. This source of funding could be tapped even more successfully, if parents and communities had a legal role in the operation of schools and were partly responsible for the management of schools.

g) More Effective and Efficient Use of Existing Resources

A major concern expressed by some persons was that more should be done to ensure the effective utilization of existing resources before additional resources were channelled into the school system. They were not convinced that current resources were being utilized in an optimal manner.

h) Fees at the Tertiary Level

There was general consensus that fees should be charged at the tertiary level. It was also felt that business should make a meaningful contribution to tertiary education. One suggestion was that a payroll tax should be charged all employers which would go directly to the College in that country.

There was concern about students who could not afford the fees. The suggestion was made that loan schemes should be created to meet the needs of such students.

i) Other observations can be listed briefly as follows:

- The amounts shown for education in the budgets of some countries under-estimate the allocation to education, in that allocations for education were sometimes included under other Ministries. For example, in some countries contribution to the UWI was included under the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and not Education.
- Alumni funding was yet to be developed as a funding source in several OECS countries.
- An educational development fund should be established and contributions to it should be tax deductible.
- Factories, especially garment factories employing large numbers of women, should establish preschools and day-care centres to facilitate those employees with young children.
- There should be greater accountability for the expenditure of public funds.

Concluding Comment

The visit of the Working Group to the eight OECS countries established that there was no shortage of views on education and no lack of vision on how the education systems of the sub-region could be reformed. Neither was there any reluctance or hesitation to voice those views and visions. The richness and variety of the views and visions have posed their own problems, since the reform strategy

cannot address every issue, neither could it accommodate all the divergent views and visions. However, the views and the visions expressed in the visits provided the Working Group with yet another important perspective from which the reform strategies could be formulated.

Section B

The Education Reform Strategies

Introduction

Education reform can be approached from several different perspectives. The most frequently employed are the rational, political, comparative, and radical perspectives. A brief statement of the essence of these perspectives should be sufficient to highlight their differences.

From the rational perspective the essential task involved in reform is that of arriving at a correct diagnosis of the needs and problems facing education systems, through identifying the assumptions on which the systems are organized and actions are being taken, asking tough-minded questions and applying thorough analytical assessments. From this approach the danger to be avoided is that of being side-tracked by the politics of the problems. Virtue consists in isolating the problems stripped of all political considerations. From this perspective reform proposals should be the product of correct diagnosis and the application of the best available knowledge concerning the issues being addressed. In other words, reform is ideally a technical exercise carried out by experts utilizing the most advanced techniques and applying state-of-the-art knowledge.

The political perspective takes a completely different tack. It takes the position that in the social milieu in which education operates there is constant tension between competing groups adhering to different value systems. Education policy and practice are largely the result of compromises between policymakers and the interest groups holding these competing values. As such there are no real solutions to education problems, only political tradeoffs. Reform is essentially the periodic re-negotiations of the values guiding policy and practice, that occur as there are changes of policymakers and shifts in the relative power of competing groups. Accordingly, reforms often consist of reinstating past policies with contemporary labels.

From the comparative perspective education and schooling are such complex activities and organizations that it is virtually impossible to make absolutely definitive statements about their outcomes. However, education systems are interconnected internally, as levels are articulated, and externally with homes, offices, factories, cultures and education systems elsewhere. Reform in education is essentially the adjustment and changes made in response to internal and external comparisons, as

these are related to desired goals and objectives in society.

The radical perspective defines education reform in terms of a complete break with the past and the launching out on an entirely new path. The past is defined in terms of obsolete or decadent traditions that ought to be abandoned. Reform is replacing obsolete and decadent traditions with new dynamic forms. The most radical approaches to education reform have been the advocates of de-schooling. Twenty years ago Ivan Illich proposed that education would be best pursued by abandoning schooling. Ellen Heyting in her book "An International Fraud: How Schools Cheat Your Children" advocates the abandonment of schooling. In its place she advocates the establishment of what she calls Rescue Homes for all children up to age ten, the employment of all children over 10 years in part-time jobs in the working world, and the creation of learning/information centres which would allow any individual to construct the learning programme in which they are interested.

Approach Adopted by the Working Group

A critical question that may be asked is, from what perspective did the Working Group approach education reform in the OECS? Certainly in the course of conducting the reform exercise the Working Group encountered all perspectives described previously. The rational and the radical perspectives were predominant among the intelligentsia in the sub-region. The officials of the Ministries of Education, and Government generally, seemed most aware of the political perspective. The comparative perspective seemed to cut across all groups as persons compared the education system of their countries with others in the Caribbean, North America, Britain and Japan.

The Working Group did not adhere slavishly to any perspective. In developing the Reform Strategy the Working Group employed all perspectives in approaching different areas highlighted for action. The Working Group did make a few radical departures but it felt no compulsion to adopt a radical approach where there was strong evidence to suggest that existing systems needed fixing and not replacement. This was so despite the fact that the Group was aware

that the radical perspective was now fashionable, especially with some experts advising on education reform in developing countries.

The Working Group had to come face to face with the political perspective on several issues. This was particularly so with respect to the pre-eminence of examinations in the education system. While the purest education practice may dictate the relegation of examinations to an insignificant role, this would not be acceptable to the vast majority of the stakeholders in Caribbean education. The Group took positions that implicitly imply that it is probably more pragmatic to link examinations to desirable education outcomes, than to try to eliminate examinations in promoting desirable education outcomes.

For the most part the Working Group employed the rational and comparative perspectives. It attempted a thorough analysis of Education Systems in the OECS, sought to benefit from the best available knowledge, internationally, by commissioning reviews of experiences in particular fields and in most instances sought to address the issues without undue concern for their political antecedents.

The single most important guiding principle in the Working Group's approach to the Reform exercise, was the finding that in the areas of primary and secondary education, OECS countries had established and operated relatively sound education systems with considerably less resources than many other countries in the region and in the world. While there were causes for concern and need for urgent action in several areas, there was no need for desperate action or panic necessitating the adoption of highly risky policies and programmes whose consequences have not been adequately assessed.

The Reform Strategy developed by the Working Group is mainly based on a technical analysis of the nature and the needs of education within the sub-region. In some instances the Strategies represent compromises with the political realities of the sub-region where these are understood in their widest meaning: that is, the values held by important and numerous stakeholders in these societies. In some respects the Reforms represent radical departures from the past. Also, the Reforms take note of comparative developments in homes and offices within the OECS, in industry and commerce and in the wider regional and international community of which the OECS is a part.

The Reform Strategies are presented under nine headings:

1. Harmonizing the Education System of the Sub-region.

2. Early Childhood Education.
3. Primary Education.
4. Secondary Education.
5. Tertiary and Adult Education.
6. Terms and Conditions of Service of Teachers.
7. Management and Administration of Education.
8. The Financing of Education.
9. The Process of Reform.

Strategies for Harmonizing the Education Systems of the OECS

Objectives

- To mobilize the Governments and peoples of the OECS to make the transition from development strategies based on the exploitation of natural resources to strategies based on the development of human resources and the mastery and production of knowledge and technology.
- To inspire the Governments and people of the OECS to shape the developmental imperatives determining their future by the exercise of their creativity, imaginativeness and problem-solving capacity.
- To further promote among the OECS countries the concepts of cooperation, collaboration, sharing and learning from each other's experiences in the process of educational development.
- To facilitate, on a sub-regional basis, the incorporation of new ideas, thinking and approaches to education developed inside and outside the sub-region and the Caribbean.
- To remove education in the OECS from the vagaries of ad-hocracy and to set it on a planned, long-term path with the capacity to evaluate its progress and to make needed adjustments.
- To provide, to the rest of the Caribbean, a model of functional cooperation in education in meeting contemporary challenges
- To preserve the cultural sovereignty of the region and to provide a framework for cultural enrichment.

General Philosophy

The reform of education within the OECS must take into account the wider Caribbean perspective of which the OECS is a part. The Reform Strategy should incorporate, with necessary adjustments, Caricom initiatives in education where these have been formulated. In the absence of such Caricom initiatives, the Reform Strategy should anticipate future directions. In this latter respect, the reform of education within the OECS could provide some models that the rest of the Commonwealth Caribbean and the wider region might wish to adopt

The reform of education must seek to devise a framework for inspiring noble visions of Caribbean society and the Caribbean person, within the context of a global vision of human civilization and humanity. The Caribbean, though a relatively poor region in terms of natural resources, is rich in its potential of advancing notions of civilization related to the common humanity of people originating from different continents and ethnic communities. Education must always be a civilizing force, any reform of education in the Caribbean must therefore seek to re-position the region in the mainstream of advancing civilization in contemporary times.

Central to the reform of education within the OECS is the harmonization of the education systems of the member states. By moving towards a common system of education the sub-region would be positioning itself to benefit from economies of scale, more efficient deployment of talent and freer internal movement. Another advantage of harmonizing the education systems is the possibility for the pooling of their resources in the effecting of some critical educational development functions in such areas as planning, research, curriculum development, testing and evaluation. The harmonization of the education systems of the OECS will also promote functional cooperation within the sub-region.

The pooling of educational resources within the sub-region should enable the countries of the OECS to overcome some of the limitations of their small size, strengthen their sub-regional capacity to negotiate with external funding agencies and satisfy the criteria of scale of those agencies that consider the member countries of the OECS as too minuscule for funding on an individual basis.

The harmonization of the education systems of the member states of the OECS and the pooling of education resources within the sub-region is a means of ensuring that any process of educational reform on which the sub-region embarks will be sustained and that the principles of consultation and participation in decision-making will underpin the process of educational reform in the sub-region.

Finally, the harmonization of the education systems of the OECS should lead to significant improvements in the quality of education delivered. Quality education is broadly defined in terms of educational standards expected of students at the end of secondary schooling. They should:

- a) Possess literacy and numeracy skills that allow them to:
 - (i) read with comprehension newspapers or magazines; health, disaster preparedness or agricultural bulletins;
 - (ii) write legible letters in Standard English to a friend, prospective employer or Government bureau;
 - (iii) express views in an articulate and logical manner,
 - (iv) handle important basic computations in everyday financial transactions.
- (b) Know how to find information through the use of libraries, directories and encyclopedias, maps and charts, and modern electronic devices.
- (c) Demonstrate positive habits and good interpersonal skills in the interaction with family, community, visitors and in group relationships generally.
- (d) Demonstrate reasonable understanding and appreciation of scientific and technological processes as these pertain to nature, the environment and everyday life.
- (e) Demonstrate a working knowledge of and functional capacity in at least one foreign language.
- (f) Have an appreciation for a wide range of music, art, dance, dramatic expressions, and have some practical competence in expressing oneself in a least one of these areas.
- (g) Possess functional knowledge and skills to facilitate entry into the world of work or to continue formal education.
- (h) Possess functional knowledge and skills needed for civic participation -
 - (i) as citizens of a democratic state,
 - (ii) as participants in civic organizations,
 - (iii) as members of the Caribbean community.
 - (iv) Hold to a value system that espouses a noble vision of Caribbean society and of Caribbean people and high principles pertaining to personal integrity, honesty, truthfulness and goodness.

In seeking to promote these outcomes, school systems should be organized to:

- recognize the individuality of each child,
- treat all students with respect;
- deal firmly and decisively but fairly and humanely with students who exhibit unacceptable behaviour;
- transmit to all students high expectations with respect to achievement and conduct;

- ensure that instruction is adequately paced, sequential, sufficiently challenging and appropriate to each age and ability level;
- ensure that instructional time is meaningfully utilized;
- provide constant feedback to students on their performance;
- design strategies for enrichment and remediation as these are required;
- provide a safe, orderly and conducive environment for learning;
- model the behaviours expected of their students.

The Reform Strategies

Several reforms are required that are general to the entire education system and are not restricted to any one level or aspect. These strategies are addressed here.

Strategy 1. Harmonize the education systems of the sub-region.

The reform strategies proposed in respect of the harmonization of the education systems of the member states of the OECS seek to achieve the objectives stated previously within the context of the philosophy outlined and also seek to reduce the anxieties and strains which the education systems of the OECS sometimes unwittingly impose on parents and students.

- (a) Adopt a common designation and specification of age bands and/or attainment criteria for each class group at the primary and secondary levels. Such a move would go a long way towards ensuring the harmonization of the education systems of the sub-region and would provide for a smoother transition from the system in one country to the system in another.
- (b) Standardize the curricula of both the primary and secondary levels in the sub-region. Common curricula would also facilitate the standardization of textbooks used at both levels. This would further promote the harmonization of the education systems of member states. It would also provide an opportunity for incorporating into the curriculum themes related to sub-regional and regional issues and activities which would stimulate creativity, imaginativeness and a capacity for problem-solving.
- c) Standardize the programmes of teacher preparation in the several colleges in the sub-region and ensure that that programme is con-

sistent with the common curricula adopted and developed in the sub-region.

- (d) Articulate the OECS Technical and Vocational Education and Training Board with the Process of Educational Reform in the sub-region. Such articulation is necessary to ensure the harmonious and integrated development of technical/vocational education within the sub-region. It would also seek to ensure the consonance of developments in technical/vocational education with the philosophy of the reform strategy and with the strategy for the development of technical/vocational education in the wider Caribbean region.

Strategy 2. Create a common legal framework for education within the sub-region.

Anthony's study of the legal framework of education in the OECS has revealed a number of deficiencies which make education systems in member states vulnerable to litigation. Countries of the OECS all share a common judicial system, so common legislation, which would promote the harmonization of their education systems is both possible and feasible. Moreover, a centralized drafting of the appropriate legislation would enable some member countries to overcome the limitations usually faced in drafting legislation. Among some of the issues to be considered in reforming the legal framework of education would be:

- (i) the establishment of the principles of consultation and partnership;
- (ii) the specifications for the content of the various legal instruments: the Act, the Regulations and Schemes for institutions, and Ministerial Orders.
- (iii) the delimitation of the authority of the principal agents of the education system;
- (iv) the provision for periodic parliamentary assessment of the educational enterprise;
- (v) the matter of discipline of students and teachers;
- (vi) the duties of teachers.

Strategy 3. Promote education about the environment at both the primary and secondary levels. This would best be done through the "Infusion Method" where information about the environment, and attitudes toward it, are presented through materials incorporated into several subjects in the curriculum. Particular emphasis should be given to the study of the environment in the early grades of primary schooling where normally the curriculum

promotes learning about the children's physical surroundings and home communities.

Strategy 4. Strengthen foreign language and inter-cultural learning across all levels of education in the sub-region.

Foreign language learning constitutes one of the weaknesses of education in the Commonwealth Caribbean including the OECS sub-region. The same holds true of learning about other cultures. The proposal here is that school systems in the OECS should adopt a foreign language policy that seeks, by the year 2010, to make at least 90 per cent of school leavers at the end of secondary school fluent in at least one foreign language spoken in the region, and at least half the school leavers fluent in two languages other than English. In seeking to establish such a policy the following should be undertaken:

- An examination of the foreign language teaching policies employed in the rest of the Caribbean, particularly in the Dutch-speaking territories.
- An exploration of technical assistance and student and teacher exchanges with non-English-speaking countries of the Caribbean.
- A feasibility study to determine the best approach to the implementation of the policy.

Strategy 5. Establish a central mechanism for curriculum development.

In developing creativity, imaginativeness and the capacity for problem solving, education systems in the OECS will have to effect major curriculum reforms and will have to develop an enhanced capability to evaluate student performance. The reality is, however, that very few of the member countries have sophisticated curriculum development units and that the capacity for effective student evaluation in most of the systems is undeveloped. The likelihood of increases in the educational budgets of these member countries to remedy these deficiencies is slim. Consequently what is proposed is a pooling of resources and the development of sub-regional subject committees along the lines used by the Caribbean Examinations Council to revise syllabi, to draft syllabi in new subject areas such as those proposed for the reform of secondary education and to develop appropriate instruments to assess student performance.

Strategy 6. Review the recommendations of the OECS/CIDA Primary Textbook Feasibility Study with a view to implementing them and carry out a similar

feasibility study of textbooks used in secondary schools.

As the working group travelled through the sub-region parents voiced their concerns about the high cost of textbooks. The group also observed that textbooks varied both within and between countries. The situation has been studied at the primary levels and the recommendations of that study could be implemented almost immediately.

The strategy proposed here also calls for an investigation into the desirability and practicality of having common textbooks at the secondary level throughout the sub-region. Common textbooks and centralized purchasing of these books and subsequent distribution throughout the sub-region could significantly reduce costs to parents.

Strategy 7. Commission a study to determine the worthwhileness of establishing a centralized unit to ensure the appropriate use of the media and new technologies for educational purposes.

If education in the sub-region is to mobilize the Governments and people of the OECS to shift to development strategies based on the mastery of technology, education itself should seek to incorporate technology into its operation at all levels. However, this should be done in a systematic and carefully planned fashion which would seek to ensure that the people of the sub-region become masters of technology. For economic reasons none of the OECS countries individually could commission studies on the use of the media and new technology for educational purposes. Nor would each of them have all the technical experts who could make up the teams to conduct such studies. The commissioning of common studies would allow the sub-region to attract funding for this activity and would afford them the opportunity to nominate sub-regional and regional resource personnel to the study teams to ensure that the cultural assumptions of the studies were consonant with Caribbean realities.

Strategy 8. Initiate an exercise designed to develop an explicit philosophy of education for the sub-region.

The main components of this exercise would be:

- Studies of the philosophies implicit in the books, syllabi and other curriculum materials, and the instructional strategies commonly used by teachers.
- National consultations and sub-regional conferences on what ought to be the guiding values, attitudes and outlooks that education ought to promote in the sub-

region. The focus should be on the formation of Caribbean society and the formation of the Caribbean person.

- A review of the lessons learned from similar reforms elsewhere.

Strategies for Reforming Early Childhood Education

Objectives

The major objectives of the strategies for the reform of early childhood education - education of children 3 to 5 years - are:

- To expand the offerings in early childhood education to meet the demands throughout the sub-region.
- To strengthen the partnership between the private and public sectors with a view to providing this level of education on a more equitable basis.
- To improve the quality of the education offered.

The essence of these strategies is to make the present structure larger and more effective.

The elements of the current model of early childhood education that would remain virtually unchanged are:

- Shared responsibility for providing schooling between the private sector, the Churches, other non-governmental organizations, and Government.
- User fees.
- Decentralized administration and decision making, with a high degree of involvement of communities in all aspects of governance.
- In-service training as the main modality of training teachers.
- Low costs per student enrolled.

General Philosophy of Early Childhood Education

Early childhood education is conceived as education to nurture and support the intellectual, social, moral and physical development of children at this stage. It is conceived also as education to prepare them for entry into the formal school system. The provision of education at this level must be particularly sensitive to socioeconomic inequities since intervention at this stage can most effectively arrest or even reverse conditions with far reaching adverse effects. Because of this strong preventative aspect early childhood education can be the most cost effective component of social compensatory programmes.

This level of education also provides the first point of interaction between the home and school. It is here that the socialization and mental stimulation of the child as a member of the wider community begins. The early childhood education programme must therefore begin the process of the formation of the child as a Caribbean person through the awareness of his identity as a national of a specific country within the wider Caribbean.

The focus of early childhood education should be on readiness and the exploration of the physical and social environment through play and concrete experiences associated with language development.

In all of the territories of the OECS this level of education - early childhood or preschool - is the fastest growing of all educational levels and requires special attention if it is not to suffer from the same problems that plague the other levels of the education system. Although it is recognised throughout the sub-region that the demand for early childhood education has as its basis a strong custodial element, it is accepted that children aged 3 to 5 years, especially children in deprived circumstances, need interventions through early stimulation and education programmes. Proper health and nutrition are also vital elements.

Reform Strategies

The following are the proposed strategies for achieving the stated objectives:

Strategy 9. Continue to promote and facilitate private initiative and philanthropic contributions as the major sources of the creation of preschools.

The majority of preschools that already exist are owned and operated privately, that is, by individuals, the Churches and other non-governmental organizations. The success of this approach, based on the willingness of non-governmental sources to provide early childhood centres, justifies the continuation of this approach.

Although Governments and Ministries of Education recognize the value of early childhood education it is prudent that they continue to rely on other sources to provide the schools at this level, given their heavy commitment to other levels of education and the limitations of the public purse.

Consequently, Governments should continue to encourage and promote the establishment of early childhood centres by non-government sources and refrain from establishing Government preschools ex-

cept in circumstances where needy children are at risk. In this regard note is taken that in some territories, Governments have not only established pre-schools but have made considerable inputs into privately run centres and have actually established centres jointly with community groups where educational inequities might otherwise have been created had Government not intervened.

Strategy 10. Introduce appropriate legislation and administrative guidelines to ensure effective regulation of the establishment and operation of pre-schools.

In the sub-region generally, the Education Act of each territory covers the education of the child from age 5 to 15 or 16 years. Where the legislation includes children below the age of 5 years, it is often not specific. Consequently, Ministries of Education are unable to exercise much, if any, control over the conditions that exist in pre-schools.

Legislation must therefore be developed through the consultative process involving all the partners, as a means of protecting the children and maintaining standards of public health and safety.

Strategy 11. Permit the establishment of pre-school departments within primary and all-age schools where these schools are under-utilized.

There are primary schools with facilities (and teachers) that once catered for larger enrollments. Their current enrollments, however, are less than the capacities of the schools. In such cases younger children could be admitted into those schools with little or no additional cost to the school system. This has been done successfully in one territory in the region accompanied by an intensive training programme for the teachers to meet the needs of this younger group of pupils. Such an approach could be adopted wherever it is feasible throughout the sub-region.

Strategy 12. Promote the mounting of awareness programmes for parents and other care givers in the home.

Programmes must be developed at the primary, secondary and adult education stages which not only pay attention to nutrition and health practices, but also focus on the home and community as centres of learning, so that parents, guardians and older children become aware of their role in helping younger children to learn. It is also necessary to re-orient parents and guardians concerning what constitutes good early childhood education. This should not only enable them to support the programme of early childhood centres but also to re-direct their child rearing practices especially where

these relate to the provision of toys and the creation of opportunities for play among children.

Strategy 13. Provide Government assistance for the following:

- a) Teacher Training
- b) Curriculum Development, Design and Production of Materials
- c) Teachers' salaries

a) Teacher Training

There are several centres for the training of preschool teachers within the sub-region and the wider Caribbean. Many of the teachers at the pre-schools have little or no training, and what they do have, has been acquired on the job. The coordinators/supervisors of early childhood education attached to the Ministries of Education (often through a UNICEF grant) have mounted a number of regular in-service teacher training workshops, but these are inadequate to meet the needs of this rapidly growing educational level.

Territories must pool their resources by contributing their available expertise to expand the offerings and strengthen the structure of the existing sub-regional centres, such as VINSAVE in St Vincent and the Grenadines. Governments must continue to assist the preschool teachers within their territories to meet the cost of training in the sub-region.

b) Curriculum Development

Curriculum Development and Materials Production. The Bernard Van Leer Foundation Project in Early Childhood Education in Jamaica produced some excellent curriculum materials which are being used in various forms throughout the sub-region. Much work needs to be done in a coordinated and consistent way to improve the adaptations of this material and to encourage the development of other relevant materials.

Too often it is felt that play equipment for early childhood centres needs to be manufactured and imported from overseas, and where this is not possible centres have suffered. Simple but effective and safe equipment has been produced successfully at minimum cost within the region.

Territories must seek to promote community involvement in the provision of play equipment and toys for local early childhood centres.

c) Provide Government support to ensure that preschool teachers are paid a reasonable wage

Many preschools are being run at very low cost, and the owners are unable to pay proper salaries; hence they attract many unskilled and untrained teachers. In some such cases these teachers are paid less than the minimum wage of the territory. Where such disparity exists, Governments should be obliged to supplement the salaries of such persons to ensure that they be paid at least the minimum wage. The ultimate aim must be to link the salaries of preschool teachers to those of other teachers within the education system.

Strategies for Reforming Primary Education

Objectives

- To improve the quality of primary education in the sub-region.
- To transform the prevailing practices of primary education from an emphasis on student passivity to an emphasis on student interaction and independent learning.
- To make primary education more responsive to the special needs of students.

Since countries of the OECS have developed self-sustaining systems of primary education which are reasonably efficient in terms of their attendance, repetition rates, drop outs and completion rates the objectives are to address the issues of process and quality and to make primary education more responsive to the needs of students who require remediation and special attention. The focus of the strategies is the provision of capital and developmental inputs which would have a maximum impact on the quality of education while adding only minimally to recurrent costs.

General Philosophy of Primary Education

Primary education should be designed to meet basic learning needs. These needs comprise both essential learning skills (such as literacy, oral expression, numeracy and problem solving) and the basic learning content (such as knowledge, skills, values and attitudes) required by human beings to be able to survive, to develop their capacities, to live and work in dignity, to participate fully in development, to improve the quality of their lives, to make informed decisions, and to continue learning.

Every child should have access to primary education and should master the basic functional standards set for this level of education.

The Reform Strategies

The reform strategies proposed in respect of primary education seek to achieve the objectives stated previously within the context of the philosophy outlined.

Strategy 14. Modernize the primary school plant.

Modernization of the school plant would require the provision of libraries and resource rooms for

individual and small group instruction, the improvement of sanitation facilities for teachers and students, the construction of staff rooms and classrooms with adequate storage space, catering for access for disabled students and the provision of playing fields and appropriate security. Modernization also entails the installation of effective communication media within schools and assisting schools to obtain photocopying and duplicating machines, audio and video-cassette players and computers.

Strategy 15. Improve the quality of primary education

A number of different components are proposed for improving the quality of primary education:

- a) Expand and improve the quality of teacher Education. Teacher training institutions should be expanded so that by the turn of the century 90 per cent of the teaching force in primary schools would be professionally trained. The course of teacher training should be extended to 3 years, the third year being one of internship in the schools during which trainee teachers would be instructed in the art and science of pedagogy. The quality of teacher education needs to be improved through the upgrading of the competence of teacher educators and the introduction of up-to-date educational technology applications and adult education methods in the instructional programmes of the colleges.
- b) Establish teacher resource centres in association with teacher education institutions. These centres which could be established on a regional basis would have facilities which would permit the design and production of materials and the holding of workshops and seminars. Through these centres teachers, as part of their regular professional practice, would tackle common problems and issues; design, develop and produce appropriate teaching and learning materials; and instruct each other in their application and use.
- c) Institute training for primary school principals. Primary school principals in the past have conceived their roles traditionally as Head Teachers and did not receive further additional professional preparation for their roles. If the prevailing practice of primary education is to change to an emphasis on student interaction then principals will have to be trained as managers, in-

structional leaders and supervisors, so that they can inspire and guide their staff.

- d) Evaluate and assess "streaming" where this practice currently exists in primary schools in the sub-region. Much of the empirical evidence produced in other regions of the world over the last 30 years raises serious questions about the effectiveness of this strategy. Studies need to be done within the sub-region to determine the effectiveness of streaming and to provide some empirical basis for determining the desirability of the continuation of this practice.
- e) Encourage schools and teachers to experiment with a wide variety of instructional strategies. At present teachers are using a variety of instructional strategies in an ad hoc and unstructured manner. These include: individual and small group instruction, peer tutoring, homework, cooperative and mastery learning and attempts to match instructional strategies to learning styles. What is needed is institutionalized support for these initiatives and a controlled sustained use of these strategies in order to establish their validity.
- f) Adopt functional standards that primary schooling should achieve. What is recommended is the development of functional standards that primary schooling should achieve and develop measures that would assess the readiness of students to embark on courses of instruction, assess the progress and diagnose the problems during the instructional process and evaluate their achievement at the end of primary school. It is recommended that these functional standards should be developed for the entire sub-region and that responsibility to develop and administer the tests and measures to assess these standards would be contracted to CXC. Following its previous practice CXC would be required to intimately involve teachers at each stage of the assessment process.
- g) Establish a system of records. The purpose of the records would be to store necessary information related to student performance and to keep track of the progress of each child through the primary school system. These records would provide the basis for regular reports to the parents of each child.

Strategy 16. Democratize the management of primary schools

To achieve democratization a board of management should be established for each primary school. Such a board would be made up of representatives

nominated by parents, teachers, Churches, past students and community members. The board, which would be linked to the National Education Advisory Council, would be responsible to the Ministry for the day-to-day management of the school and would be mandated to foster closer links between the school, the homes and the community it serves.

Strategy 17. Establish support services in respect of children with special needs.

These support services would include screening and testing for disabilities, the establishment of special education units in some primary schools and periodic surveys to determine the incidence of various disabilities in the society. In addition, they would provide for the instructional needs of special children and for the social welfare of children in need.

Strategy 18. Integrate the creative and fine arts into the teaching/learning process.

In an attempt to stimulate creativity and imaginativeness students should be encouraged to explore concepts, ideas and social situations through the medium of the creative and fine arts. The Caribbean and the OECS sub-region have rich sources of creative experiences and expressions that the school needs to tap in the education of Caribbean children. Art, music and drama have much to contribute to the learning of English language, mathematics and science, not to speak of the social sciences. The pedagogical practices of primary schools need to be systematically re-structured to make this integration.

Strategy 19. Review the mechanism for the transfer of students from the primary to the secondary level.

There is a wide variety of experience in the sub-region in respect of the transfer of students from the primary to secondary level. In some respects some countries in the OECS are more advanced than other countries in the wider Caribbean region. The review of the existing mechanisms of transfer should enable countries of the sub-region to assess the relative merits of each mechanism with a view to developing more appropriate mechanisms of transfer.

Strategies for Reforming Secondary Education

Objectives

- To expand the provision of secondary education in the sub-region.
- To reconceptualize its nature, form and content.
- To improve its quality.

Philosophy: Secondary education and schooling have a multifaceted character.

- It is education for persons at a particular stage of human development - adolescence. As such, it must cater to the personal development needs of adolescents.
- It is education of a standard above that of the primary level. That is, it assumes some mastery of basic functional standards in several areas as preconditions for successful learning at this level.
- It is really intermediary education. That is, it can no longer be considered terminal education for those who receive it. Secondary education should be followed by tertiary education in specialized fields or skills training for specific jobs in the labour force. As such, secondary school leavers must either be fitted for further education in a particular field or for training in some specific skill area. Accordingly secondary education must be of a general nature in a wide range of fields while facilitating the initial stages of specialization based on individual aptitude, achievement, interest and aspiration.
- It is schooling which can enhance and foster social cohesion and solidarity on the one hand or deep social cleavages on the other, depending upon how it is structured. Secondary schooling is an instrument of fashioning the social order.

Taking into account this multifaceted character of secondary education the approach adopted here is that education beyond age 11 or 12 years should be related to the development status of the children. The assumption is made that in each chronological age group (cohort) there will be children at different developmental stages. These stages can be broadly defined as:

1. Precocious or gifted in several areas, that is, developmentally advanced relative to their peers - say about 10 per cent.
2. Normal, that is, children whose capabilities are considered standard for that stage - say about 50 per cent.
3. Developmentally lagged or slow learners: those children who will achieve the same stage as the so-called 'normal children' but who can and will take a longer period (time) and require sympathetic and supportive treatment from teachers and parents - say about 25 - 30 per cent.
4. Developmentally disabled, those children who are moderately or severely disabled in one or more areas, so that they are not able to achieve all that so-called normal children can achieve or attain even with sympathetic and supportive treatment by teachers and parents, say about 10 - 15 per cent

There are, however, two important qualifications to these assumptions;

- (a) Categories overlap and are not mutually exclusive.
- (b) Empirical studies and surveys are needed to give approximations of the incidence of the different categories in any particular society at any given time. For example, the occurrence of severe malnutrition or rubella could significantly alter the incidence of various developmental disabilities in a specific cohort of children.

Reform Strategies

Strategy 20. Re-structure the school system along the following lines:

- (a) The rest of the sub-region should follow the British Virgin Islands, Montserrat and St. Kitts and Nevis in providing schooling to all children up to the age of 16 years.
- (b) All territories should aim to transfer to secondary schooling all children who are not developmentally disabled; that is, approximately 90 per cent of each age cohort.
- (c) All countries should provide special schooling for the developmentally disabled up to age 16 years.
- (d) Transfer from primary to secondary schooling should be based on satisfying functional standards of literacy and numeracy at the primary level. (This would lead to the phasing out of the

Common Entrance examinations where these still exist within the sub-region.)

- (e) The age of transfer should be allowed to vary between 10 and 13 years.
- (f) Establish certification for students reaching the functional standard of primary education, a primary school leaving certificate, in order to add structure to continuing and adult education.
- (g) Establish mechanisms to maximize continuity of instruction between primary and secondary schooling.
- (h) Establish two exit standards of success for secondary school leavers: one standard would be the current CXC and the other demanding cognitive competence one year below the current CXC standard.

Strategy 21. Re-conceptualize the programme in secondary education as follows:

- (a) General education that would emphasize and promote:
 - i) problem solving
 - ii) creativity and imagination
 - iii) independent judgement
 - iv) generic technical skills
 - v) inter-personal skills.
- (b) A common curriculum in the first 3 years. The subjects of the common curriculum would be English Language and Literature, Mathematics, Integrated Science, Integrated Technology, Social Studies, Foreign Languages, Physical Education, Religious and Moral Education, and Creative and Performing Arts.
- (c) Introduction of broad specialization in the last two years. While specialization would be introduced in the sense that students would be allowed to choose the subjects to make up their programme, the guidelines for choice should promote combinations of subjects of different types. There should be a requirement that all students should study English and at least one foreign language.
- (d) The concentration of individual schools on particular areas of specialization, since no one school could offer all the programmes. The areas of specialization of individual schools would need to be rationalized so that all programmes are offered in the sub-region, if not in each country.

Strategy 22. Encourage innovation in the schools in respect of the following

- (a) Semesterization of at least some programmes of instruction.

- (b) Setting and other forms of grouping for instruction.

- (c) Modular programmes.

- (d) Flexible programming across year-groups.

- (e) Internal assessment and promotion strategies.

Strategy 23. Improve the quality of secondary schooling by:

- i) Establishing a programme of training school principals.
- ii) Establishing a comprehensive programme for educating and training secondary school teachers in the sub-region. This programme should be geared to train teachers capable of teaching all grades of the secondary school. The sub-region should aim to create a self-sufficient capacity to train secondary school teachers in sub-regional institutions.
- iii) Lengthening the school day to five and one half hours of instruction where this does not currently obtain.
- iv) Strengthening foreign language teaching through cooperation with neighbouring non-English-speaking Caribbean and Latin American States.

Strategy 24. Strengthen support services:

- i) Guidance and counselling
- ii) Social welfare
- iii) Libraries and learning resources

Strategy 25. Articulate secondary schooling with:

- (a) The upper primary grades
- (b) Tertiary programmes
- (c) Continuing education
- (d) Regional, sub-regional and national TVET programmes.

Strategy 26. Promote:

- (a) Enrichment programmes in vacation periods, particularly the summer. Clubs, societies and other extra-curricular activities could be re-organized on a concentrated basis in vacation periods instead of the one to two hours per week basis that is currently practiced.
- (b) Sub-regional and regional exchanges of students and teachers

Strategies for Reforming Tertiary, Adult and Continuing Education

Objectives

- To transform tertiary education into the engine of human resource development and of knowledge generation in the sub-region.
- To facilitate the consolidation of technology transfer to the sub-region
- To provide educational programmes for all persons who missed or were not afforded the opportunity to complete formal primary and secondary schooling.
- To provide the opportunity for educational renewal and advancement for all citizens with the relevant educational background.

General Philosophy

Tertiary and adult education in the OECS context is quite distinct from primary and secondary education. First, it is geared to older adolescents and adults. Second, it embraces a wide array of sectoral and individual interests, for example, teacher and nursing education, technical and vocational education, traditional university-type education as well as the education of adults wishing to learn to read or to learn about some new disease or pursue some other area of interest. Third, it is both the highest rung of the ladder of educational achievement and a point at which individuals can make up for past lack of attainment at the lower levels.

Given the variegated character of tertiary, continuing and adult education it embraces a wide diversity of outcomes.

- (i) Specialization within the context of vocational interests
- (ii) Integration of education with specific skills training and consequently their articulation with the world of work.
- (iii) Lifelong education and training of OECS citizenry as technologies change, society is transformed and other related developments occur which require education and training responses
- (iv) Additional chances for individuals who did not capitalise on earlier education and training opportunities

Institutional autonomy and self-direction of the participants are essential components and these

must be supported by an adequate legal framework and an appropriate system of accountability.

Tertiary education is underdeveloped within the OECS. Any new thrust must be mandated to provide for a higher percentage of the population thereby decreasing the tendency of OECS nationals to migrate in search of tertiary education. This means expanding tertiary education opportunities within the OECS. At the same time the under-representation of females in Science and Technology and the deprivation of rural residents require attention.

There should be a partnership involving all the beneficiaries in order to ensure that the best relevant quality education is delivered. Only a national effort that maximizes Government, private sector, personal and external support can provide the needed expansion and improvements.

The integration of single-discipline colleges into larger multi-disciplinary institutions is seen as a feasible measure to ensure the better utilization of manpower and scarce and expensive resources.

Regional cooperation is a prerequisite for the successful implementation of tertiary education since no single country can be self-sufficient in meeting its manpower training needs or in enabling its citizens to achieve their maximum potential.

Reform Strategies

The reform strategies proposed for tertiary education are expected to strengthen the OECS tertiary institutions and enhance their capability to deliver quality education in keeping with the general philosophy above

Strategy 27 Continue the amalgamation and integration of small single-discipline colleges into larger multi disciplinary institutions.

Apart from the possibility of cross-lecturing to maximally utilize the expertise, this approach creates the situation whereby students can exploit the course offerings at different branches of the institution. In turn this situation fosters a spirit of cooperativeness as well as greater interaction between students of different disciplines

Strategy 28 Expand tertiary education by increasing existing institutional capacity and establishing new facilities and programmes where necessary.

In the absence of expansion the OECS will continue to lose students who seek tertiary education overseas

Lost also will be the money used for their primary and secondary education.

New facilities and programmes are in keeping with the need to keep abreast of the technological and information explosion and economic development.

Tertiary level opportunities should be provided not only for secondary level graduates, but also for individuals already absorbed into the work force and the unemployed. As such, courses will be provided for "white collar" and "blue collar" workers as well as courses in creative movement, singing and voice production, and music to all talented individuals to exploit opportunities in the entertainment industry.

Finally, as increased access to secondary education lifted the standard of primary education, in the same way, expansion of the tertiary sector can impart a "pull" on the secondary level.

Strategy 29. Re-think and reorganise Technical and Vocational Education (TVET) to produce a standardized system which functions in a partnership with the private sector and which is intimately integrated into the world of work.

(It is noted that the OECS TVET Project has adequately dealt with the details of the standardization. As such only the outline of the reform is given below, in a way that hinges it to the project.) Different aspects of engineering must be taught to technicians and vocational training with "hands on" emphasis should also be provided. In addition, computer skills training will be essential not only to allow technical and vocational students to access Computer Assisted Introduction (CAI) and computerised simulation software, but also because the computer has become such an integral part of all business organizations.

Technical and vocational education is expensive. Facilities and equipment are costly as is their maintenance. To justify costs TVET should be channelled to students with an adequate general education and the courses must be related to future employment opportunities. Costs may be reduced by the provision of centres of specialization as well as through distance education using varied methodologies. Job placements and apprenticeship systems will allow students to make the transition from the tertiary institution to the real world while receiving "hands on" experience at the same time.

Strategy 30. Facilitate and provide ongoing professional training for adult education, teachers of TVET and teachers in the formal tertiary education sectors.

Teachers of adults, whether in the formal or non-formal sectors, are usually recruited from among primary and secondary school teachers and are not usually provided with any additional professional or academic preparation. However, they require and need special preparation and training to be effective in teaching adults within literacy programmes, continuing education classes or in certificate, diploma or degree programmes.

Future growth and development in tertiary, continuing and adult education require measures to improve the competence of the teachers at this level. Further and future development of colleges within the OECS should provide enhanced opportunities for staff development to teacher educators, nursing tutors and all the specialist staff involved in the various areas of TVET. Likewise, training opportunities should be provided for teachers in continuing and adult education programmes.

Given the nature of the tasks involved, programmes to upgrade teachers at this level would need to be mounted in conjunction with the UWI and other universities. Much of the training would need to be provided using in-service modalities.

Strategy 31. Mandate tertiary institutions to establish more intensive and extensive working relationships with the sectors, occupations and individuals they serve.

This strategy proposes that all aspects of tertiary education, not only technical and vocational education, need to get involved in a partnership with the private sector.

Strategy 32. Revise existing legislation to give tertiary education a sound legal basis.

When examined, it was found that no Education Action Ordinance actually addresses tertiary education. Although the Education Acts of Antigua, St Kitts and Nevis, St Lucia and to a lesser extent Grenada, make reference to post-secondary education, there is no provision in the Ordinance and Act of Montserrat and Dominica respectively.

Unless the necessary legislation is put into place the tertiary institutions (except that of St Lucia) will continue to be administered in a similar manner to secondary schools. The lack of a legal framework might not always be a disadvantage. It gives the institution added flexibility as it evolves. But without the legal basis there is uncertainty, lack of commitment and endless scope for mediocrity.

Strategy 33. Re-structure the governance of tertiary institutions to allow greater autonomy, wider national representation and greater accountability.

When the legal framework is being drafted the above reform strategy can be adequately addressed. Greater autonomy allows the organization the flexibility to realize its full potential especially if there is total involvement in the decision making process by all the players, coupled with a system of accountability.

Strategy 34. Rationalize the existing programmes in terms of their relevance, costs, demand and maximal utilization of available quality teachers.

Courses offered at tertiary institutions must be relevant. Relevant not only to projected economic development but also to the needs of the individual. This flexibility will allow part-time students to access as many courses as do full-time students albeit over a longer period of time. It is clear that many students will need to combine work with study.

Apart from the partnership with the private sector which is absolutely necessary to defray costs, students should be charged fees in proportion to the rewards they will receive at the end of their courses when they access better job opportunities.

But course offerings must be realistic. For example, it is recommended that university programmes, which are set up in response to demand, should be abandoned if only two or three students take the courses.

In fact the strict programming to advanced levels and UWI first-year and second-year courses ought to be weighed against gearing students to complete associate degree programmes. Having completed these associate degrees students might then progress to the UWI or other universities.

With the associate degree structure, tertiary institutions might then be better able to offer programmes for mid-level professionals. For example, paramedics, para-legals and mid-level accountants, engineers, architects, as well as public health inspectors, customs officials, and the whole spectrum of middle managers can be accommodated at OECS tertiary institutions.

Strategy 35. Encourage private and public sector initiatives in providing continuing education for adults.

Appropriate steps need to be taken to ensure the following:

- Strengthen efforts to eradicate illiteracy and to sustain functional levels of literacy in the sub-region
- Provide, through evening classes, study groups, open learning opportunities and distance education, learning opportunities for out-of-school youths and adults to pursue

general education, vocational skills, life skills and social and civic responsibilities.

- Promote linkages between adult and continuing education on the one hand and the formal school system on the other hand, through the establishment of common standards of achievement, methods of assessment and forms of certification that are accessible through both formal and non-formal education.
- Allow for easy transfer of learners within and between formal and non-formal systems, both vertically and horizontally.
- Establish appropriate regulations, guidelines and structures for the organization and coordination of adult and continuing education programmes.

Already the point has been made about costs and the need for partnership between the private and public sectors. Inherent in the strategy above is the need for part-time teachers from the private sector to assist with the training and re-training needs of both the public and private sector.

Strategy 36. Articulate programmes at tertiary institutions with those at the UWI and other universities within the Caribbean region.

This would ensure that the course designs, their scope, duration, focus and mode would all be in keeping with acceptable university standards and facilitate accreditations when students opted to pursue further studies beyond the scope of the tertiary institution. Of course, certification would be validated if programmes are articulated with universities.

Over the next 15 to 20 years the UWI should increasingly divest Certificate, Diploma and Bachelor Degree programmes to tertiary institutions in the various territories it serves. The UWI should increasingly focus on graduate programmes. In other words the various Faculties of the UWI would increasingly become Graduate Schools fed by graduates from the various national colleges affiliated with the regional University.

Strategy 37. Upgrade the modes of delivery of tertiary education in keeping with current world-wide trends.

Delivery should move away from the course-centred approach to the student-centred approach. The use of modules, computer assisted instruction, media of all types ought to be inculcated into tertiary instruction. As well, linkages with other institutions, using electronic media, ought to be established.

Strategy 38. Ensure equity in the access of students from poor homes, girls and rural residents to tertiary education.

Scholarships, flexible course offerings at secondary level as well as distance education, among other methods will facilitate the implementation of the above strategy.

Strategy 39. Provide hostel accommodation for out-of-island students. While boarding accommodation is an expensive proposition it is not possible to implement the concept of centres of specialization without making provision for students from other countries. Every effort should be made to learn from innovative Caribbean experiences in providing hostel accommodation for students. It should also be noted that these facilities have an income generating potential in student vacation periods. With the provision of these facilities should be the requirement to utilize their income generating potential.

Strategy 40. Create an Eastern Caribbean College Council under the aegis of the OECS Secretariat.

The establishment of the Council would be in support of the proposals for the reform of tertiary education within the sub-region. The Council would be authorised to:

- (i) coordinate programmes and specializations in all Government tertiary institutions in the sub-region;
- (ii) monitor the development of tertiary education and liaise with regional and extra-regional tertiary institutions to ensure accreditation of programmes done in the OECS;
- (iii) determine and validate costs in tertiary institutions; and
- (iv) act as a clearing house in the transfer of funds from countries to institutions for support of their students.

Strategies for Reforming the Terms and Conditions of Service of Teachers

Objectives

- To improve the quality of education by upgrading the status of the teaching profession through improving the terms and conditions of service of teachers.

General Philosophy

The society depends on teachers to mould the personalities of the youths so that they can contribute to the spiritual, moral, social, cultural and economic progress of the community. Teachers are not only the key element in the provision of good quality education and therefore critical to the success of any strategy for human resource development, but they are the chief standard-bearers of the efficacy and chief agents of the effectiveness of the educative process. Who the teacher is and how the teacher is perceived in society, are as important as what the teacher does. How the teacher and the teaching profession are perceived is critical to the success of the educational enterprise. Recruiting and retaining good teachers who are appropriately educated and trained is vital to the provision of good quality education and for the development of human resources in the sub-region.

The task of recruiting and retaining good teachers is complicated by several factors. At present morale in the teaching profession, in most territories, is low. The public perception of the teaching profession is that it has lost status. Low salaries, poor formal qualifications in several instances and poor working conditions in many schools are all contributing considerations. In addition, with higher levels of general education in the population, teachers no longer command respect by virtue of superior education nor are they automatically elected or appointed to leadership positions. Affirmative action is required to promote teaching as a career.

Reform Strategies

Strategy 41. Improve the salaries of professionally qualified teachers.

The joint commentaries by the ILO and UNESCO, 1984, on the status of teachers recognized that:

'Amongst the various factors which affect the status of teachers, particular importance should be

attached to salary seeing that in the present world conditions, other factors such as the standing or regard accorded them and the level of appreciation of the importance of their function are largely dependent, as in other comparable professions, on the economic position in which they are placed.

Accordingly, they recommended that teachers' salaries should:

- (a) reflect the importance to society of the teaching function and hence the importance of teachers as well as the responsibilities of all kinds which fall upon them from the time of entry into the service;
- (b) compare favourably with salaries paid in other occupations requiring similar or equivalent qualifications;
- (c) provide teachers with the means to ensure a reasonable standard of living for themselves and their families as well as to invest in further education, or in the pursuit of cultural activities, thus enhancing their professional qualification;
- (d) take account of the fact that certain posts require higher qualifications and experience and carry greater responsibilities than others.

The essence of the strategy recommended here is to improve substantially only the salaries of teachers who have been professionally trained. To increase teachers' salaries across the board could encourage unqualified teachers, at the undergraduate and graduate levels, to remain professionally unqualified for their teaching responsibilities. By increasing salaries for professionally qualified teachers it is expected that more persons will opt to be trained as teachers and more trained teachers will be retained in the profession. Bearing in mind the high proportion of untrained teachers and untrained graduates that hold teaching posts, strong salary incentives should be provided to encourage them to become trained.

There is concern within the system about the disparity between the salaries of the technical/vocational teachers, certified teachers and graduates. It is recommended that the Governments of the sub-region should adopt a common system for grading and classifying teachers. Before such a system could be established there would be need for study of existing systems in the sub-region and regionally and the development of the principles on which such grading would be done.

Strategy 42. Improve benefits to teachers.

The serious source of concern in the teaching profession is the disparity in salaries in teaching compared with other occupations in the public and private sectors requiring comparable qualifications and training. Given the financial constraints of the public sector and the inability to match the wages and salaries in the private sector, it is recommended that Government provide loans, at concessionary rates of interest for house mortgages. This could be targetted mainly to teachers who have served satisfactorily in the public service for say a minimum of 7 to 10 years. Furthermore, Government could implement Health Insurance Schemes to assist with medical expenses of teachers. Such schemes could be contributory, teachers paying say half of the costs and Government the other half.

Strategy 43. Improve the working conditions of teachers in the schools and re-orient programmes of teacher education so that they are more student centred.

Teachers, particularly those in the primary schools, work under very unsatisfactory conditions. The supply of basic materials is inadequate; there are hardly any modern teaching aids; there is no provision for ancillary staff to perform janitorial duties; and the staff rooms, where these exist, are overcrowded and bare.

Ideally, each primary school should have an office for the principal; a staff room in which each teacher has a desk, a chair and some storage facilities; a rest room for female teachers; adequate sanitary conveniences for teachers and secretarial/clerical support staff.

The provision of these facilities to accommodate teachers in the schools would require capital expenditure to add to the existing school plants where these facilities do not exist. The provision of basic materials and secretarial/clerical staff would add to recurrent expenditure.

However, every effort should be made to improve the working environment so that the teachers could be more effective in the classroom.

Programmes of teacher education in the sub-region need to be re-examined with a view to making them more centred on student learning needs and on methodologies that promote student creativity, imagination, independent judgement, critical thinking and initiative.

Strategy 44. Expand teacher training to achieve 90 per cent trained teachers at primary and secondary levels by the year 2002.

At present, in the OECS countries, between 30 - 80 per cent of teachers in primary schools and 17.6 - 78.3 per cent in secondary schools are professionally trained. Also, it should be noted that the majority of qualified teachers at secondary schools were trained to teach at the primary level. To meet this target the following would need to be done:

- (a) Increase the teacher education capacities of the countries. While this may mean expanding institutional capacity in teacher education in the multi-disciplinary colleges being created, several different modes of delivering teacher education will need to be developed. Taking into consideration the favourable teacher-pupil ratios that currently exist, and the declining primary and secondary school populations in most countries, most of the teachers to be professionally trained may already be employed in the school systems. In addition to full-time enrollment in college, part-time evening, vacation, distance teaching, day release and other delivery modes will need to be explored.
- (b) Create regional centres of specialization for training of technical/vocational teachers. Already there are two centres in the OECS. The Home Economics and Industrial Arts Centre at the Sir Arthur Lewis Community College and the Business Education Centre at the Antigua State College. Other centres of specialization should be established in each OECS country.
- (c) Establish scholarship and loan schemes to assist teachers to take advantage of the training being offered in these training institutions.
- (d) Provide opportunities for the continuing education of teachers and introduce requirements for teachers to refresh themselves professionally at least every 5 to 7 years.
- (e) Establish a national quota for teachers to be trained annually. This should assist in planning for the maintenance or expansion of the teaching service as well as providing a safeguard against other Ministries competing for limited financial resources.

Strategy 45. Enhance the status of the teaching profession.

In recent years teaching has become less attractive as a profession. The moral rectitude is still required by society; the work-load has increased as parents abdicate more of their responsibilities to the school; the salary and working conditions are unsatisfactory and respect and cooperation from the public are on the decline.

In keeping with the dignity of the profession and the key role of education in the development of human personality and the progress of the community, the teaching service needs to be reinstated and be given pride of place in the public service of each country.

The following are recommended:

- (a) Establish the legal parameters of teacher authority to protect teachers in the exercise of such authority. Previously the teachers exercised a control over the pupils on the basis of their authority, and even when they infringed the rights of the pupils, they were supported by the parents, simply because of the value placed on education. Today, the pupils are challenging the authority of the teachers and parents are seeking legal redress for the rights of their children. The time has come to define the rights and responsibilities of teachers and students and to establish the legal basis of the authority of teachers.
- (b) Encourage teachers' organizations in the sub-region to establish a code of ethics for the teaching profession. Teachers constitute a professional body like doctors or lawyers and should set themselves the highest possible professional standards in keeping with the importance of their role in society. A code of ethics or of conduct should be established by the teachers' organizations since such codes greatly contribute to ensuring the prestige of the profession and the exercise of professional duties in accordance with agreed principles. It is recommended that the teachers' associations of the sub-region jointly set out the roles, rights and responsibilities of teachers in a code of ethics for the teaching profession in the sub-region. These associations should also establish the means of monitoring and maintaining adherence to the code among all teachers.
- (c) Recruit and train suitable persons for the teacher profession:
 - i. Introduce pre-service training of teachers as mandatory. Completion of an approved course in an appropriate teacher-preparation institution should be required of persons entering the profession.
 - ii. Admission to teacher preparation should be based on the completion of appropriate secondary education and the evidence of the possession of personal qualities likely to help the

persons concerned to become worthy members of the profession.

Strategy 46. Establish a career path for teachers.

In the teaching service there is scope and incentive to move from an untrained teacher to a graduate professional teacher, but having reached that level, there is no promotional outlet except at the administrative level as a principal. Consequently many trained teachers complain about stagnation and it is at this point that they try desperately to get out of the system. However, the service cannot really afford to lose this expertise and the original investment.

Therefore in order to avoid frustration and wastage among the trained and experienced teachers, it is recommended that the teaching service be restructured to create a career path for professionally trained teachers. The following are proposed:

- Introduce paid ranks - Senior Teachers and Vice Principals - between the current starting grade of qualified teachers and principals. Such posts should be established in all schools based on formulae that would need to be developed.
- Provide posts so that at least one third of the qualified teachers in a school could be promoted to these ranks.
- Establish mechanisms to determine the duties and responsibilities of these senior teachers within the school.

Strategies for Reforming the Management and Administration of the Education System

Objective

To restructure and improve the efficiency and effectiveness of the management and administration of the educational system at both the central and institutional levels.

General Philosophy

The management and administration of education within free, open and democratic societies should both reflect and advance the precepts and ideals of freedom and democracy. Accordingly the management and administration of education should be characterized by:

- Broad representation and participation in the decision making bodies and processes.
- Constant dialogue, communication and consultation between all the stakeholders.
- Periodic negotiation and re-negotiation of goals, missions and methodologies.
- Access to public information and the right to know.
- Provision for the nurturing of leadership potential and a climate for the personal growth of individuals.
- Public accountability through reports and audits at regular intervals.

Reform Strategies

Strategy 47. Promote wider participation in the management of education

The management and administrative structure of the educational system must be re-designed to allow for greater participation in goal setting, policy making, implementation and evaluation.

Given the tendency in the modern world for people to prefer democratic/collaborative/participative management approaches, and as more and more persons within and outside of the various ministries of education become better trained and qualified, strategies that tend to restrict participation will be counter-productive. Moreover, as the various education systems expand and presumably come to depend more and more on resources outside of the regular system the pressure for wider participation will become greater.

In this regard the following strategies are recommended:

- (a) Appoint National Advisory Councils of Education with well defined roles and membership coming from a wide cross-section of the society. The actual roles, composition of, terms of office of members of these councils should be specified in legislation.
- (b) Establish individual School Boards with extended powers (e.g. in the areas of staff selection, financial management, discipline of staff and students).
- (c) Establish in all secondary and tertiary institutions students' councils and guidelines which specify the issues on which these councils should be duly and appropriately consulted.
- (d) Re-design the procedures and practices used in the supervision of schools to include greater involvement and participation of principals and teachers. Effective supervision requires close contact between supervisors and schools. Such contact might best be achieved if there is fast, easy communication between the parties concerned. Supervision must not, however, be regarded as an entirely external function. Individual schools or groups of schools must be sufficiently empowered to function as integrated teams, setting their own goals and objectives and putting in place mechanisms for monitoring their progress on an on-going basis. The job of the principals must therefore be defined as managers with commensurate authority to function in their role. The interdependence of administration, supervisors, teachers, students and the community that the school serves must, however, be understood and appreciated.
- (e) Review the dual system of education management. Some territories have continued to operate the historic dual system of management of the education system in which Church and State are the principal partners. The inclusion of parent/teachers associations, past students, communities, private sector and other groups in the decision making and management functions of the education system would require some review of the dual system of management and appropriate changes and adjustments would have to be made.

Strategy 48. Provide adequate and appropriate training in management and administration for Ministry and school managers.

In an information age, managers and administrators need to understand that people will become more committed to goals when they feel a sense of ownership of what is going on. Administrators must therefore learn how to lead while allowing individuals to participate fully in the decision making process. It is therefore necessary to:

- (a) institute management training programmes in/out of the region for senior professional staff and potential senior professional staff;
- (b) establish formal and in-service training for school principals and teachers performing management functions in schools;
- (c) ensure that management/administrative training is an essential component of teacher training programmes.

In essence the professional personnel working in the school system in both the Ministry and the institutions should be generally aware of the overall goals and operations of the system and their roles and responsibilities in the delivery of education. Also it is felt that, in general, the training that most OECS managers and administrators receive is theoretical, academic, too specialized and outside of their operational experience. It is often the case too that the training is based on resources that are either not available locally or not appropriate to the local context. Moreover, it is generally the case that small island managers and administrators are required to perform multiple roles and duties. Managers must be trained therefore to perform the tasks that will confront them in their everyday duties. Accordingly, management training for education staff should incorporate:

- (i) appropriate participative/consultative management approaches
- (ii) a re-definition of roles in keeping with these perspectives
- (iii) strategies to make maximum use of community resources, human and non-human

Strategy 49. Pool education development specialist resources in the OECS.

The smallness of OECS territories makes it almost impossible for them to provide all the development specialists required to support the education system. The sub-region constitutes a much more economic and affordable basis on which to provide such specialist support. All territories, to a greater or less extent currently possess some specialists. How-

ever, the existing specialist capacity in all territories manifests major gaps. That is, there is no territory that currently has development specialists covering all of the following areas: planning, curriculum development, measurement and evaluation, special education, education media and production, guidance and counselling, adult education and project management. Yet all are needed to support the dynamic functioning of the education system.

While the principle of pooling is readily acceptable the exact ways for organizing the pool are not so self-evident or universally acceptable. The essence of the proposal here is that the principle of pooling the education specialists in the sub-region be accepted, but further study and discussions be held concerning the exact way in which this could be done. The following proposals are offered as guides to further discussion of the matter. The proposals represent the two ends of a continuum of ways in which the pooling of education development specialists could be organized:

- (a) Re-organizing the existing territorial specialists into a sub-region network mandated to deliver specialist support to the education systems in the sub-region. The sub-regional education specialist network would require the following:
 - Coordination in its composition and operations.
 - Re-writing of the job descriptions and the responsibilities of the specialists.
 - Linkages with Ministries of Education such that some services could be "on line" through modern communication devices.
 - A mechanism of requesting services, assessing benefits and allocating costs related to the contributions made by each territory in providing specialists and the specialist services received by that territory.
- (b) Creating central units of development specialists in planning, curriculum development, measurement and evaluation, media and production, adult education, special education and project management. These central units could be located in different territories or in a single territory depending on what was considered most desirable and effective. The establishment of central development specialist units would require:
 - Formal long-term agreements between the territories.
 - A mechanism for territories to access the services.

- A system of relating costs borne by each territory to the benefits received.

Strategy 50. Establish independent bodies to award scholarships.

Attention is drawn to the highly personalized environment of small states leading to the problem of excessive political influence on personnel selection and training. Also associated with the issue of training is the fact that in some territories selection for training awards is done by another Ministry, for example, the Ministry of Planning. It is recommended therefore that:

A broad based selection committee for scholarship awards be set up in the Ministry responsible for education. Such a committee would then set up appropriate strategies to ensure fairness in the allocation of awards.

A negotiated number of scholarships or fellowships be assigned to the Ministry responsible for education and that these be disbursed in keeping with its planned goals.

Strategy 51. Create an autonomous OECS Human Resource Development Institute.

This Institute would be designed to constantly monitor human resource development in the sub-region, produce decision-oriented research, conduct policy studies, carry out project and programme evaluation and promote innovations.

Experimentation in education and human resource development, generally, has been scanty, probably because the role of timely and appropriate data in education policy making has been underestimated. It is recommended therefore that an Institute be created to:

- (a) conduct policy and other decision-oriented studies;
- (b) conduct applied research and disseminate results;
- (c) develop and maintain an indigenous literature;
- (d) develop data bases on human resources;
- (e) promote the systematic collecting, processing, analysing, storing, and retrieving of data on human resource development;
- (f) evaluate projects;
- (g) promote innovative approaches to the solution of persistent problems in human resource development.

The development of this capacity would necessitate:

- (i) An endowment, the investment of which would provide the Institute with an independent source of core funding.

- (ii) A structure of governance that would ensure its credibility and technical competence while maintaining a development focus on the issues and problems engaging the attention of public, professionals and politicians.
- (iii) The employment of a core of competent professionals and the training of promising individuals to acquire the appropriate knowledge, skills and experience;
- (iv) A mode of operation that easily combines core staff and funding with project staff and funding.
- (v) A constant programme of marketing the Institute inside and outside the sub-region so that it maintains a capacity to generate some of its operating income.

Strategy 52. Review the existing organizational structure of Ministries.

The current rigid separation of administrative/financial and professional education functions, in the organization of Ministries of Education has created numerous problems in their operations and in the management of the education system. This approach to organizing the Ministry should be reviewed:

- to look into the apparent ambiguity/duplication of roles of and responsibilities;
- to examine the career paths and scope for mobility among professionals;
- to assess the feasibility of introducing results oriented management systems.

Strategies for Reforming the Financing of Education

Objectives

To increase the financial resources allocated to education from all sources.

To maximize the efficient and effective deployment of such resources. To promote long-term investment in programmes and projects and in the education sector generally.

To ensure public accountability for the funds allocated or granted.

General Philosophy

Financial resources constitute only one of the essential components of educational development and reform. Yet it is a key factor. Below certain levels of funding many programmes and projects are jeopardized. At the same time additional resources are not synonymous with better education. Accordingly, investment and financial support for education must take account of the following:

- Education is a long-term process and therefore funding and investment must be sustained if optimal results and returns are to be obtained.
- No single source of funding can effectively sustain and support the education enterprise. Single sources operating in isolation have proven inadequate as the basis of funding education. These include user fees, grants and endowments, Government subvention, special taxes, donor assistance and local and external loans. Partnership in funding from the different sources in funding education is the only feasible option.
- No child should be denied education solely on their parents' inability to pay. Human resource development considerations as well as human rights obligations dictate that every child, regardless of the socioeconomic circumstances of birth, should have access to good quality education.
- Schools and colleges are, or can be made, capable and competent to manage their financial affairs.
- Education is an enterprise that can generate some of the income needed to develop itself.

Reform Strategies

The reform strategies proposed for the reform of the financing of education seek to meet the objectives stated previously within the context of the general philosophy outlined.

Strategy 53. Redefine and restructure financial obligations.

Reference was made earlier to the fact that in the post independence period Caribbean states have attempted to assume total responsibility for education. The public purse, especially in the period of sustained recession, has been unable to sustain this position. Reform strategy seeks to advance a new framework for determining the financial obligations of the State, parents, private sector, communities and the nation. The essence of the approach proposed here is to advance a principled basis on which the contributions and investments of the different stakeholders in the education enterprise would be made. The framework is set out as follows:

- a) The State should assume full responsibility for tuition at the primary and secondary levels. This is the State's obligation to all its citizens irrespective of the circumstances of their birth. It is what the State provides from regular taxes collected to provide basic services. Free tuition at the primary and secondary levels should be provided within the context of a balanced budget. The State should not normally require any assistance from any source in meeting this obligation. To offer tuition the State would be obligated to undertake the following:
 - The provision of school buildings, equipment, furniture and playfields and their maintenance.
 - The employment of teachers in appropriate numbers - with adequate academic education and professional training - and with salaries and conditions of service that would ensure effective teaching and learning.
 - The provision of good quality teaching and learning materials in adequate quantities to classrooms.
 - Support services, enrichment activities and programmes which would ensure and enhance learning. (For example, libraries, audio-visual equipment, material production equipment, field trips etc.)

- Management and supervision of the system at the institutional, regional and national levels.

To ensure that the State shoulders this responsibility on a continuing basis, the State should be required by law to allocate a set proportion of its annual budget to education: at least 20 per cent of its overall budget, of which at least 75 per cent would go to provide tuition in primary and secondary schools. These figures are derived from current sub-regional averages and are illustrative of the principles being enunciated. (A study would need to be done to determine the exact proportions that are feasible and workable from several perspectives.)

- b) Parents would be expected to take responsibility for the following, as part of their obligations to their children:
 - Books, even if bulk purchase and rental schemes, or some combination of both, are put in place to minimize costs, thus making books more affordable.
 - Nutrition, even if school feeding programmes are organized to keep costs low.
 - Clothing, even if uniforms are employed to reduce costs and schemes are put in place to bulk purchase the same.
 - Transportation, even if school bus services are organized to make the service effective and affordable.
 - Examination fees, where these are charged.
 - Extra tuition, where they choose to seek it.

The point needs to be underscored that, even if the State, in seeking to keep costs down, organizes such programmes or regulates contractors providing such services, the recovery of costs from parents ought to be a clear understanding of these arrangements. Parents would also have the option not to participate in the State organized scheme and could seek the service from anybody willing to provide it on terms that are acceptable to them.

- c) Poverty alleviation and provisions for needy children. It goes without saying that there will be parents who will not be able to shoulder the responsibilities outlined. The position here is that those children should become the beneficiaries of assistance and poverty alleviation measures from various sources including the State, communities, NGOs, private sector, international agencies and groups that espouse humanitarian causes. There are several

modalities that could be adopted to address the needs of these children from such homes. These can be listed briefly as:

- An endowment fund, the interest of which would be continually used to make provision for pupils from poor families. This fund would be open to contributions from all sources. The management of the fund would be by an independent foundation whose Board would be drawn from wide sectional interests. The State would not have any access to these funds or have any control over the operation of the fund.
- Scholarships schemes covering the annual costs of the items listed. Such schemes could be established by companies, individuals, living and posthumous, service clubs, churches, etc.
- Direct assistance schemes organized at the local level, which help families, or children of school age, or schools or communities. Again such schemes could be operated by many NGOs and other interested parties.
- School projects, where schools through their own fund raising efforts organize their own ways of helping their students who fall into this category.
- Community projects, where communities organize their own schemes of helping families and children from their, or other, areas.

The essence of the proposal here is that where assistance is being mobilized for education, such assistance should be channelled directly to the children and families in need and should not be routed via subsidy to the State. The corollary is that the State cannot be expected to single-handedly meet the needs of all those who must be subsidized in order to participate fully in the educational system. Accordingly, mechanisms need to be created to ensure that the assistance given reaches the children in need and is used for the educational purpose for which it was donated.

- d) The costs of tertiary education should be shared. Tertiary education benefits the students who receive it, the public and private entities that employ them as well as the State. All beneficiaries should bear some meaningful proportion of the costs involved. There is no gain-saying the difficulties involved in gaining acceptance of such a system of apportioning costs. Nevertheless it should be the framework

within which the financing of tertiary education is approached.

- e) Financing developments. The proposals put forward deal essentially with the operation of the school system and the maintenance of children participating in the system. The issue not dealt with is that of developments to keep the school system contemporary with advances pioneered elsewhere, and the capacity to generate its own advances. Examples of developments would include:

- The introduction of new technologies in the school system including computers to assist with both management and instruction.
- The expansion of foreign language teaching and learning as a means of fostering regional interaction and cooperation across the various language and cultural barriers.
- Innovations, developed nationally and regionally, designed to improve various aspects of education.
- The design and production of local and regional teaching materials
- Incentives to teachers to generate higher levels of learning efficiency.
- Research and development projects.

From the perspective adopted here, the responsibility for system-wide development properly belongs to the State. Where regular taxes are unable to meet the cost of such development, then the State could introduce special taxes, the proceeds of which would be used to finance developments, partially or totally. The proceeds from the tax should not form part of the general revenue of Government and should therefore not be part of the consolidated fund. The State should be required to account annually and publicly for deployment of the revenue collected for this purpose.

- f) Monitoring mechanism. There should be some monitoring mechanism, established by law, to ensure that all partners are fulfilling their obligations. The monitoring mechanism would have the responsibility of determining how well the State is fulfilling its obligation to provide tuition; parents' obligation to meet ancillary costs; the extent to which needy children are being provided with the necessities, how well the State is responding to its obligation to keep the education system contemporary by appropriately deploying taxes collected for that specific purpose. The most appropriate body to perform such a monitoring role would be a National

Council on Education with broad based representation from all sections of the society and education community.

Strategy 54. Guarantee the education subvention and decentralize the control of spending.

Currently Ministries of Finance are not obligated to disburse the budgeted allocations for education to the Ministry of Education. Also Ministries of Education exercise central control over the spending of the funds disbursed by the Ministry of Finance. Schools, and sometimes even colleges, receive little cash.

The reform proposal here is that the Financial Regulations of Government should be revised to permit and guarantee the following:

- That the funds allocated in the annual budget are disbursed to the Ministry of Education.
- That, with the exception of teachers' salaries, the control of spending by the Ministry of Education be decentralized to School Boards which would be accountable to the Ministry on an annual basis. The principal of the school would be the chief accounting officer of the School Board. Funds would be allocated to the school according to an approved budget.
- That School Boards would retain all funds raised or earned by the school and be able to deploy those funds as they see fit. Ministry permission would only be required where the Board seeks to erect buildings in Government-owned schools.

Strategy 55. Devise equitable bases for allocating funds to schools.

Public funds allocated to education should be disbursed to schools on some equitable basis on which budgets are developed. Currently some schools enjoy huge financial advantages from the public purse which cannot be sustained on any rational or just basis. These are largely the results of history, privilege and influence. The strategy proposal here is that Ministries of Education should commission the following:

- Studies to immediately devise equitable bases on which schools, at the different levels of the educational system, are funded. Such studies would seek to establish appropriate funding differentials between the different levels of the education system and equitable bases of funding within each level.

- Periodic studies to assess the equity of the system of allocating public funds to schools and the efficiency and effectiveness of the utilization of the those funds by schools. The assessment would be over and beyond the audited financial reports that School Boards would be required to submit to the Ministry. Such periodic assessment would facilitate improvements in the system of allocating funds and their efficient and effective utilization over the long term.

Strategy 56. Strengthen the financial management capabilities of Ministries of Education and of schools and colleges.

Decentralization of spending within the education system would require as a necessary corollary that both the central management capability in the Ministry and the institutional capability in the schools and colleges be considerably strengthened. This would require the following:

- The establishment of systems of budgeting, financial management and annual audits.
- Providing training in financial management for Ministry and school managers.
- Providing support equipment and accounting staff to operate the systems established.

Strategy 57. Introduce cost recovery schemes for tertiary education and for specific Technical Vocational Education and Training.

Both tertiary education and specific Technical and Vocational Education and Training are underdeveloped areas in the OECS. The proposal anticipates rapid growth and development in these areas, and seeks to set out a financial framework within which this growth and development can be facilitated. Both areas are conceived as coming after primary and secondary education. The education and training would therefore be directed at young adults and adults who either are, or will shortly be, employed.

The proposal here is that Governments would set in motion the process by which cost recovery schemes could be developed to fund education and training in these areas. Feasibility and other studies would need to be commissioned. The elements of the schemes that should be explored include:

- Student fees or in-kind contribution through work.
- Revolving loan schemes or concessionary loans to students through special windows in financial institutions.

- Employer levy based on payroll and/or in-kind contribution through providing instructors, equipment or classroom facilities.
- Government subsidy which would vary with occupations according to their location in the private or public sectors.
- Grants and soft loans from donor agencies.
- Sale of places in local Institutions to foreign students.

Strategy 58. Provide incentives for private investment in education.

The strategy here is not focussed on encouraging private investment in operating schools, so much as on providing incentives for the following:

- Delivering services in the education sector. For example, such services as transportation, school meals and other support.
- Developing education software in the form of books, teaching and learning materials, audio-visual materials and computer packages.
- Marketing and providing expertise within the region and in other developing countries.

Schools, colleges, companies and individuals establishing and operating income generating programmes and projects within the education sector should benefit from the same facilities, have access to the special windows in financial institutions and enjoy the same incentives as businesses and other economic ventures in agriculture, tourism and other such areas. Special tax and other incentives should be given to those institutions, companies or individuals that develop education goods or services for export.

Strategy 59. Control external borrowing for education.

It is very unlikely that education and its reform can be financed solely from regular revenue from the local sources identified, that is, the State, parents, private sector, communities and philanthropic bodies. Education reform will require borrowing. As far as is possible Government should seek local sources through floating bond issues and other such measures. External borrowing should only be resorted to in very specific circumstances:

- Where foreign exchange is needed to purchase foreign expertise, technology transfer or vital equipment.
- Where a source of repayment is identified and the project is linked to that source.

- Where there are no conditionalities which are inconsistent with, or contradictory to, the reform objectives and strategies.

Accordingly external borrowing for education should be restricted to developmental projects for which repayment is assured and where conditions for borrowing do not seek to alter the reform process. Grant funding should always be welcomed wherever it is consistent and compatible with the reform objectives.

Strategies for the Reform Process

Objectives

To ensure the long-term success of the reforms by providing the following:

Scope for resolution of those issues not fully agreed or determined at the outset of the reform process.

Capacity to adjust the reform strategy in the case of unanticipated and unplanned developments, and/or unintended outcomes of planned strategies.

General Philosophy

Education reform is as much a process as a set of planned outcomes. No reform strategy can fully anticipate and plan in every detail all the needed educational responses demanded over the next 15 to 20 years. This is so because of insufficient knowledge of many aspects of education generally and in the OECS, limited insight into the operation of critical variables, and future developments that cannot now be anticipated. Nor can any reform strategy forecast most of the unintended consequences of planned change. In addition, not all of the elements of various reforms may be agreed on from the very outset. There will be reservations on some elements for a variety of reasons. These factors pose considerable problems for developing a detailed implementation plan for reforming the education systems of the sub-region.

Limited foresight, unresolved issues, insufficient knowledge and unplanned developments should not, however, forestall action. But at the same time prudence requires that the reform strategy possesses the capacity to benefit from hindsight, new knowledge, future agreements and fresh insight. An alternative to a detailed implementation plan is the proposal of a framework for the reform process and a mechanism to ensure that the process is carried out within this framework.

The same broad process that created the strategy points to the approach that needs to be adopted to implement it. Therefore the reform strategy cannot be constituted solely of recommendations and prescriptions but also of mechanisms to maintain its dynamic character. A framework and mechanisms which seek to ensure continuous review of goals, objectives, outcomes and achievements, which allows new components to be added and which promotes ongoing consultation among the

stakeholders in education in the sub-region are vital to the success of the entire reform exercise.

Recognizing that education in the OECS has always benefitted from partnership between OECS Governments and institutions on the one hand and on the other hand regional and international agencies and regional bodies and associations, the implementation of the reform strategies would require that continued use should be made, where appropriate, of existing capacities, skills and relationships with these partners.

Reform Strategies

Strategy 60. Accept the Reform Strategy as a whole.

The Education Reform Strategy cannot be implemented all at once. Yet the overall Reform Strategy needs to be adopted as a whole. While some aspects can be implemented almost immediately, others will take years before meaningful action can be taken. Common sense dictates that a start be made in some areas and not in others. However, to retain its integrity, the entire Reform Strategy needs to be accepted in principle by the competent authorities. The proposal is that:

- a) Ministers of Education of the OECS in their Annual Meeting, in October 1991, accept the Education Reform Strategy in principle.
- b) On the recommendation of the Ministers of Education, the Central Authority of the OECS would accept and endorse the entire strategy in principle.

Strategy 61. Mobilize the sub-region for implementation.

Successful implementation of the Reform Strategy will require broad based support and involvement from a wide cross-section of groups, institutions and individuals inside and outside the OECS. Actions must therefore be taken to mobilize for implementation. The proposals are:

- Distribute the Executive Summary of the Reform Strategy to all the groups, institutions and individuals that participated in the national consultations using the same means by which the national consultations were organized. Also publish the Reform Strategy as a monograph and make it available to all who request it within the OECS.

- Circulate the Reform Strategy to ALL regional agencies engaged in education in the sub-region.
- Ministers of Education should table the Reform Strategy as a White Paper in Parliament and request that a Select Committee be appointed to consider the Strategy and report to Parliament.
- Convene a Donor Conference of all multi-lateral and bilateral agencies currently funding or interested in funding education in the sub-region. Invite to this Conference regional agencies, Government and opposition spokesmen and advisors, and representatives from critical interests within the OECS.

Strategy 62. Establish a mechanism to coordinate, manage and monitor implementation.

The reform process requires a mechanism to coordinate, manage and monitor implementation within the sub-region. The following is proposed.

Establish an Education Reform Council named by, and reporting to, the OECS Ministers of Education. The following are suggested guidelines for the composition of the Council:

- Membership should be broad-based to include the major stakeholders and actors in education in the sub-region.
- Each of the Member States should be represented on the Council by at least two persons.
- The Director-General of the OECS Secretariat or his nominee and the staff member directing the Reform process should be ex-officio members of the Council.
- The regional partners - the CDB, Caricom Secretariat, CARNEID, CXC and UWI - should be given Observer Status on the Council.
- Procedures would have to be worked out concerning the term of office of members and the rotation of categories of members between the countries

The mandate of the Council would be as follows:

- To further refine and develop the strategies and approve the programmes and projects through which the strategies would be implemented.

- To develop cost estimates concerning the capital, developmental and recurrent expenditures that the reform strategies imply.
- To develop a plan of implementation that would define phases in the implementation of the overall strategy.
- To monitor progress in the implementation of the reform, in the several phases, through formative evaluation, policy studies and other means.
- To report annually to the Central Authority on the progress of the reforms.
- To negotiate with national authorities regarding their participation and timely implementation of agreements.
- To ensure linkage and coordination with regional initiatives within Caricom and the rest of the Caribbean.
- To negotiate with international agencies for funding support.
- Ensure continued consultation within the OECS concerning all aspects of the reform.

The Council would probably need to meet frequently initially, say quarterly, and then probably on a half yearly basis. The Council may also need to have a small executive which would address matters outside of regular meetings.

Strategy 63. Establish a Reform Unit staffed with professionals.

While the Council will have overall responsibility for the implementation of the reform, the Council will need to be supported by full-time professional staff whose task it would be to take executive responsibility for all aspects of the work of the Council. The proposal therefore is to establish an Education Reform Unit in the OECS Secretariat which would be the executive arm of the Reform Council. This Unit would be manned by a Director and other full-time professional staff. Its responsibilities would include:

- The professional and technical work related to the planning, costing and the implementation of the reforms as approved by the Council.
- Establishing working linkages with Ministries of Education, private sector, teachers' unions, etc., and regional bodies in the execution of their tasks.
- The professional and technical work related to monitoring and evaluating the progress of the reforms or the commissioning of such work.

- Conducting national and regional consultations related to the reform process.
- The professional and technical work related to negotiation and interaction with international agencies.

The staffing of the Reform Unit would need to be commensurate with the scope of work of the reform programme in terms of both the number of the professionals appointed and their competencies. It is proposed that this Unit should be externally funded for 10 years, as a critical aspect of the implementation of sub-regional reform within the education sector. After this period the Central Authority would determine whether or not the Unit's central functions should be institutionalized within the Secretariat.

Strategy 64. Establish national priorities.

The eight countries of the OECS are at different stages of development of different levels of their education systems as well as for the introduction of various aspects of the reforms. This requires that each country would need to assess itself within the comprehensive strategy in order to establish its own priorities. In very few instances will countries set priorities not shared by others. Hence while sub-regional cooperation is likely to result in every area of the reform strategy, not all countries would be involved in all aspects of all reforms at the same time. The following is proposed:

- That countries with National Education Advisory Councils or Committees would mandate these bodies to determine the national priorities and liaise with the OECS Education Reform Council concerning all aspects of implementing the reforms.

Countries without National Education Advisory Councils or Committees would need to establish a National Commission on Education Reform which would determine national priorities and liaise with the OECS Education Reform Council concerning all aspects of implementing the reforms.

- That each country would seek means of sharing their experiences with others in the sub-region, where they had initiated programmes that had anticipated the recommended reforms. One important means of sharing would be the documentation of the experiences, and the lessons learned.
- That each country take positive steps to learn from the experiences of other countries that had previously implemented the policies and programmes they are planning to implement.

Strategy 65. Commence implementation through the immediate development of some projects.

Action in the field is critical to the success of the implementation of the Reform Strategy. It is important to make a prompt start and to maintain the momentum by implementing additional elements of the reform in a timely way. The proposal here anticipates that there will be phases in the implementation plan, and suggests the possible content of Phase 1. It is expected that Phase 1 would consist of two elements: a) strategies that could be implemented almost immediately, and b) the commissioning of studies where immediate action is not feasible.

Fortunately there are several areas in which action, in the form of project development, can be almost immediate. These areas should be established as priorities and could be acted upon while the preparatory work is going on in other areas.

Possible project areas for Phase 1 include the following:

- The creation of a Human Resource Development Institute to maintain regional data bases on all aspects of human resources in the sub-region, to conduct policy studies, to evaluate projects and programmes, to sponsor and promote innovative approaches, to keep the region abreast of developments in the rest of the world and to monitor the progress of the reform process from a critical but constructive perspective.
- Regulating and improving the quality of early childhood education mainly through developmental assistance in the areas of teacher education, curriculum development, material development, making of toys and improvised playground equipment, parent education and guidelines to be followed by providers.
- Standardizing primary education in the sub-region. This would include agreement on common objectives, structures and names; the development and implementation of common curricula in four subject areas - English, mathematics, science and social studies; standardizing the textbooks at least in these four areas; and the introduction of common standards as measured by tests standardized across the sub-region.
- Modernizing and improving the physical plants in primary schools.
- Improving the quality of teacher education for primary school teachers in all states and

expanding the teacher training capacity in some states.

- Creating and establishing integrated technology as a subject in the curriculum of secondary schools. To create this subject the project would need to include both curriculum development and teacher education components.
- Establishing a comprehensive capacity to educate and train secondary school teachers in colleges in the sub-region.
- Expanding, modernizing and improving secondary school plants.
- The expansion of tertiary education by the continued development of Centres of Specialization and multi-disciplinary colleges.
- The delivery of continuing education for adult learners through distance education programmes.
- The legal reform of education in the sub-region. This would include national consultations, sub-regional conferences and legal drafting before common legislation could be proposed for enactment in the sub-region.

(Appendix A gives a full listing of the profiles of these possible project areas.)

Feasibility studies, evaluations or reviews appear advisable in the following areas:

- Technical and vocational education and training.
- Decentralizing and democratization of the management of education.
- Changing the basis of financing education.
- Reforming the terms and conditions of service of teachers.

Interrelationships Between the Strategies

It should be noted that while Strategy 60 must come before all the rest, Strategies 61 to 65 could very easily overlap. There is no reason to implement them sequentially. Once the Central Authority approves the Reform Strategy, then it is possible for work to begin with respect to several aspects of Strategies 61 to 65.

Appendix A

Project Area Profiles

A. Project Area Profile: Early Childhood Education.

Title: Improving the Provision and Quality of Early Childhood Education.

Background and Justification

There is growing demand in every OECS territory for early childhood education. It would appear that changes in the family structure and arrangements (for example, the increasing numbers of working mothers and grandmothers) have both increased the need for institutional care for infants as well as reduced the level of educational stimulation normally provided in the home and so vital to the formative development of the child.

The arrangements for providing early childhood education in the OECS vary between the territories. Four types of arrangements can be identified:

- Private individuals or institutions operating with little or no Government involvement or regulation (Antigua-Barbuda, B.V.I. and St Vincent and the Grenadines).
- Private individuals and institutions operating within Government regulations and monitoring through established committees and Ministry officials (Dominica and St Lucia).
- Partnership between Government and private sector (Montserrat and St Kitts-Nevis).
- Mainly Government provision with limited private sector involvement (Grenada).

There is serious concern, however, about:

- a) The large number of children who do not currently benefit from any programme of early childhood education.
- b) The great variation in standard and quality of the education and care provided.
- c) The limited impact on children from rural areas and low income families.

Aims and Objectives

- To expand early childhood education to meet the growing demand.
- For Governments to establish regulations to protect children and to ensure acceptable standards of safety, care and education.
- To improve the quality of early childhood education through systematic approaches to teacher training, parenting education, curriculum development and the production of toys, equipment and other materials.

Project Area Components

This project area is expected to include four components:

- a) Expanding coverage of early childhood education especially to rural and low income children
- b) Introducing and enforcing regulations with respect to accommodation, programmes and care.
- c) The training of administrators, teachers and parents.
- d) Developmental support through curriculum, materials and equipment design and production from local sources.

Assistance Required

The sub-region possesses the technical competence to design and develop all components of the project area. Assistance will be required along the following lines:

- Specialized technical assistance with respect to toy production, for example.
- Support for curriculum, materials, equipment and toy production.
- Sharing expertise and experience in the sub-region.
- Project management.

B. Project Area Profile: Primary Education.

Title: *Improving the Quality of Primary Education.*

Background and Justification

Current enrollment rates at the primary level in the OECS are close to 100 per cent. Despite rapid population growth over the last 40 years, spectacular improvements have been achieved in the sub-region in both the demand and provision of primary education. Prevailing concerns are not about putting children into primary schools, but rather about the relevance and quality of the education provided. Major areas of concern are:

- a) Achievement in reading and mathematics.
- b) Instruction that promotes the reliance on authority figures, conformity and uncritical acceptance of positions, and that places too little emphasis on independent judgement, creativity and critical thinking.
- c) Inadequate provisions and programmes for disabled students, slow learners and gifted pupils.
- d) The poor and dilapidated conditions of many school buildings, inadequate and inappropriate furniture, and the lack of modern equipment.

Aims and Objectives

To improve the quality of primary education through the following means:

- Establishing common targets, structures, curricula and standards for primary education in the sub-region.
- Modernizing and improving primary school plants.
- Developing differentiated programmes of instruction that take account of the developmental stages and needs of children.
- Improving the quality of teachers through improved pre-service and in-service teacher education.
- Providing appropriate training for primary school principals as managers and instructional leaders.

Project Components

The project components are expected to include the following:

- a) Developing an OECS framework for primary education by harmonizing and standardizing primary schooling and education in the sub-region. This would include targeted outcomes for primary education, structure and nomenclature, curricula, textbooks, standards and evaluation and assessment processes.
- b) Restructuring the instructional programme, first by making more adequate provisions and developing more appropriate programmes for disabled students, slow learners, gifted pupils and second, by placing greater emphasis on independent learning, creativity and critical thinking.
- c) Modernizing and rehabilitating the physical plant. This includes school buildings, furniture for students and teachers, and equipment for both teaching/learning and administration.
- d) Teacher education. Expanding the capacities of teacher education institutions in the sub-region, restructuring the programme for educating and training primary school teachers, and creating teacher centres for in-service programmes of training run by the teachers themselves.
- e) Programmes for training school principals.

Assistance Required

Assistance would be required in the following areas:

- Technical assistance related to all components.
- Capital funding for buildings, furniture and equipment.
- Project management.
- Sub-regional meetings, consultations and conferences.

C. Project Area Profile: Secondary Education.

Title: *Restructuring and Improving Secondary Education.*

Background and Justification

Current enrollment rates at the secondary level in the OECS vary from almost 100 per cent in B.V.I.,

Montserrat and St Kitts-Nevis to about 35 per cent in Dominica and St Lucia. The efficiency and effectiveness of secondary schooling also varies significantly between the territories. Over the period 1984 to 1990, judging from CXC and GCE results, the Grenadian secondary system has experienced the least effectiveness and consequently the greatest wastage, while the Montserrat and St Kitts-Nevis systems have been the most effective of the OECS and indeed of the entire Commonwealth Caribbean. Yet even in Montserrat and St Kitts-Nevis less than 50 per cent of the students eligible by age actually sit the CXC and GCE examinations.

The concerns about secondary education are as follows:

- a) The high proportion of students not receiving secondary education, in some countries, despite strong demand from parents and students.
- b) The high proportion of students in secondary school leaving at the end of 5 years without any formal credentials.
- c) The inflexibility, overload and irrelevance of several aspects of the curriculum and organization of the instructional programme.
- d) The inadequate provision of appropriate training for secondary school principals and teachers.

Aims and Objectives

To expand secondary education to cater to all students who can benefit from this level of education.

To restructure the curriculum and instructional programmes so that they relate better to individual and societal needs.

To train administrators and teachers as the major means of improving the quality of secondary education.

To improve and modernize the secondary school plants.

Project Components

The components of this project area are:

- i) The establishment of a comprehensive and sustainable capacity, within the OECS, to train secondary school teachers and principals.
- ii) The restructuring of the secondary school system so that it caters to all students who are not developmentally disabled
- iii) The re-conceptualization of the curriculum and the organization of the

instructional programmes, including the introduction of a new subject - Integrated Technology.

- iv) A school building programme. The expansion of existing secondary schools and the building of some new schools in some territories.

Assistance Required

- Technical assistance related to all components.
- Capital funding for buildings and equipment.
- Sub-regional sharing of expertise and experiences.
- Sub-regional meetings, consultations and conferences.
- Project management.

Comments and Implications

OECS territories currently accommodate all students of school age up to 15 or 16 years. The provision of secondary education to all students who are not developmentally disabled, and therefore can benefit from secondary schooling, is not as monumental as it first appears. In addition, in providing additional secondary school places, the pressure on primary schools especially in urban centres would be considerably relieved, since students between 12 and 15 years, not receiving secondary education, are accommodated in primary schools. The additional recurrent expenditure would largely be in terms of more favourable teacher-pupil ratios and the demand for more qualified staff.

D. Project Area Profile

Title: *The Expansion of Tertiary, Adult and Continuing Education.*

Background and Justification

Generally, tertiary education has been relatively underdeveloped in the OECS. Many nationals of the sub-region have had to seek tertiary education opportunities outside the OECS. This has restricted the numbers of persons who have been able to benefit from such education. Given the current economic thrusts in the OECS, the natural corollary to restricted tertiary education opportunities will be either the

recruitment of top, or even middle managers, from outside the sub-region, or the promotion of inadequately educated and trained nationals to top positions.

While the current trend in the sub-region is to integrate single discipline colleges into multi-disciplinary institutions, even these institutions are not able to offer the full range of programmes required by their local economies. In order to meet local needs tertiary education must be organized on a sub-regional basis founded on the concept of centres of specialization. Tertiary education must also be delivered by a multiplicity of modalities.

Aims and Objectives

To expand and consolidate the centres of specialization approach in the OECS.

To expand and improve delivery of continuing education programmes

To expand and diversify the capacity to deliver tertiary education through distance education.

Project Components

The components of the project are expected to be:

- The expansion and consolidation of sub-regional cooperation in the provision of tertiary education based on centres of specialization.
- The expansion of continuing and adult education programmes.
- The creation of a variety of instructional packages for delivering tertiary education: distance education, day release, part-time, evening, vacation, sandwich courses etc.
- Staff development for college lecturers and the training of teachers for adult and continuing education programmes.

Assistance Required

- Technical assistance related to all components.
- Capital funding for building programmes in several countries.
- Establishing functional cooperation mechanisms at this level
- Project management.

E. Project Area Profile

Title: *Strengthening and Improving Technical and Vocational Education and Training Systems.*

Background and Justification

Recent initiatives in TVET have been introduced at different levels of the formal and non-formal systems. These include:

- Pre-vocational education at the senior primary and junior and senior secondary levels.
- Practical subjects in comprehensive type secondary schools.
- TVET as a parallel track to academic education in post-secondary institutions.
- TVET as a component or department of community colleges.
- Miscellaneous on-the-job or non-formal skills training operations.

The rationales for these different initiatives have encompassed diverse and sometimes conflicting objectives:

- a) Preparing a skilled and productive labour force.
- b) Including TVET as part of general education appropriate to the contemporary times.
- c) Meeting the manpower needs related to economic developments taking place in the respective countries.
- d) Providing alternative education to persons who have failed the academics.
- e) Seeking to reduce unemployment among secondary school leavers or to provide meaningful activities for unemployed youths.
- f) Tapping the resources of those donor agencies favouring the development of TVET against assistance to other areas of education development.

As would be expected a great deal of controversy has surrounded the implementation of the various TVET initiatives in the different countries. Concerns that would need to be addressed in any programme of education reform include:

- Developing a philosophy of TVET that was definitive with respect to the nature, purpose, objectives and content of pre-vocational preparation, and also that of vocational training related work entry, continuing education and on-the-job training programmes.

- Formulating policies that set out clear guidelines for the coordination, standardization, articulation, certification and accreditation of TVET programmes.
 - Improving the status of TVET.
 - Enhancing sustainability through the development of cost-effective approaches.
3. Training teachers and administrators engaged in TVET at the various levels.
 4. Establishing and/or strengthening information and guidance service systems supporting TVET programmes.
 5. Improving and strengthening the sub-regional and regional network of institutions and organizations providing and supporting TVET.

Aims and Objectives

The broad aims are to:

- Consolidate, improve and develop the cost-effective national TVET initiatives of the recent past.
- Integrate national TVET systems into a unified and self-sustaining TVET system within the OECS.

The specific objectives are to:

- a) Articulate a philosophy of TVET that is clear with respect to the nature, purpose, objectives and content of TVET at the various levels.
- b) Identify and establish national priorities that are consistent and compatible with sub-regional aims and plans.
- c) Improve quality, efficiency, effectiveness and the delivery of TVET programmes by offering appropriate training to administrators and teachers.
- d) Re-conceptualize, restructure and standardize curricula at the various levels to address the problems of relevance and adaptation to new technologies.
- e) Standardize and articulate examinations and assessment procedures, taking into account the needs of students, institutions and the private/public sectors.
- f) Link institutions to the private/public sectors through partnerships at all the stages of the delivery of TVET: input, process and output.
- g) Optimize the use of available resources through cost-effective measures and coordination mechanisms.

Project Components

1. Framing and establishing policies and regulations with respect to cost-effectiveness, standardization of training systems, linkages with the labour market and private sector, and provision of centres of specialization.
2. Modernizing and/or developing appropriate modularized curricula.

Assistance Required

Assistance would be required as follows:

- Technical assistance related to all components.
- Capital funding for facilities, furniture, equipment and publications.
- Sub-regional sharing of expertise and experience.
- National and sub-regional meetings, workshops, seminars and conferences.
- Project/programme management, implementation and evaluation.

Comments and Implications

The immediate priorities need to be identified through national and sub-regional discussions.

F. Project Area Profile

Title: *Reforming the Legal Basis of Education in the OECS.*

Background and Justification

The laws regarding education in the OECS tend to be limited in scope and application. Several territories continue to abide by ordinances, acts and regulations enacted in the colonial period, before sovereignty was an active consideration. Equally important is the fact that recently enacted legislation in several countries gives grossly inadequate coverage of some very pertinent issues. Given the growing tendency for people within the region to resort to the courts for the resolution of disputes, it is necessary to consider some measure of legal reform.

Analysis and recent history show that OECS territories, in enacting education legislation, have borrowed generously from each other. This is not surprising since all the territories share a common constitutional, political and historical experience. Indeed, this is a persuasive argument for an OECS

approach to reforming the legal basis of education in the sub-region.

Project Components

The following are the suggested project components:

- a) National consultations.
- b) Sub-regional meetings/conferences rationalizing the inputs at the national level.
- c) Review of education legislation in each territory.
- d) Drafting of common OECS legislation.

Assistance Required

- Technical assistance with respect to all components, particularly the review of national legislation and the drafting of common legislation.
- Support for sub-regional meetings and conferences.

Comments

The enactment in each territory of the common draft legislation will depend on national will and not sub-regional imposition.

G. Project Area Profile

Title: *Creating the OECS Human Resource Development Institute.*

Background and Justification

The fields of educational planning, policy analysis and formulation, project and programme evaluation, educational research and development, and the creation and maintenance of data bases on human resources have all become indispensable tools in decision making. General human resource development itself depends on systematically analyzing needs, interventions and strategies. The OECS currently has very limited capacity in the areas listed above. While there are some professionals with the technical competence to undertake work in these areas, the institutional framework for continued, sustained and systematic efforts is lacking. Neither is it feasible for each territory to attempt to fill this gap individually. However, no major programme that focusses on long-term human resource development

can be effectively sustained without the creation of such capacity in the sub-region.

Aims and Objectives

To create an independent, autonomous, highly respected Human Resource Development Institute staffed with technically competent professionals, mandated to monitor, critically assess, evaluate and stimulate HRD strategies in the OECS.

To develop sub-regional capacity to clarify issues, reflect upon alternatives, define objectives, evaluate experiences, stimulate inventions, develop innovative solutions and systematically generate and disseminate information and knowledge about education and human resource development.

To provide policy makers, practitioners and professionals with reliable and objective data and with independent views and assessments of the course of human resource development in the sub-region.

Project Components

- a) Creating a functional unit to undertake policy studies, educational research, feasibility studies, project and programme evaluation and to establish and maintain data bases in all critical areas related to human resource development in the sub-region.
- b) Securing endowment and other long-term sources of funding in order to ensure the independence and integrity of the Institute.
- c) Recruiting a core staff of trained professionals to man the Institute.
- d) Establishing network linkages between this Institute and human resource development operations in the sub-region.

Assistance Required

- Technical Assistance.
- Endowment and other long-term funding support.
- Staff development support.
- Equipment.
- Sub-regional meetings, consultations and conferences.
- Project funding.

Appendix B

Organizations and Individuals Consulted During the Country Visits

The visits to the eight OECS territories took place between May 6th and June 1st 1991. The organizations and individuals who met and contributed their ideas to the Working Group are listed in this Appendix.

Antigua and Barbuda

1. The Hon. Bernard Percival, Minister of Education, Culture and Youth Affairs.
2. Mr Deryck Michael, Permanent Secretary.
3. Mr Whitfield Harris, Chief Education Officer.
4. Other Officials of the Ministry of Education.
5. Mr Baldwin Spencer, Leader of the Opposition.
6. Mr Tim Hector, Leader, Antigua/Caribbean Liberation Movement, ACLM.
7. Principals of Secondary Schools.
8. Representatives of the Caribbean Council of Churches.
9. Representatives of the Anglican and Catholic Committees.
10. Representatives of Private Secondary Schools.
11. Officials of the Antigua Workers Union
12. The Executive of the Antigua and Barbuda Union of Teachers.
13. The Education Committee of the Antigua Trades and Labour Union.
14. Mr Karl Roberts of the Antigua Chamber of Industry and Commerce.
15. The Principal and Heads of Departments of the Antigua State College.
16. Representatives of the Parent/Teachers Associations of two schools.
17. Mr Gordon Roberts of the Adult Literacy Programme.

British Virgin Islands

1. His Excellency the Governor, J. Mark Herdman.
2. Hon. Lavity Stoutt, Chief Minister.

3. Hon. Louis Walters, Minister of Health, Education and Welfare.
4. Miss Irma Smith, Acting Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Health, Education and Welfare.
5. Mrs Sebulita Christopher, Assistant Secretary.
6. Mr Elroy Turnbull, Chief Education Officer.
7. Other Officials of the Ministry of Education.
8. Head of Economic Planning, Ministry of Finance.
9. Representatives of the Parent/Teachers Association of the BVI High School.
10. Miss Battle, Executive Director Hotel and Commerce Association.
11. A Committee of the BVI Teachers' Union.
12. Representatives of the Parent/Teachers Associations of the Althea Scatliffe Primary and the Enid Scatliffe Pre-primary Schools.
13. Representatives of the Small Business Association.

Dominica

1. Senator the Hon. Rupert Sorhaindo, Minister of Education and Sport.
2. Mrs J Pensaina, Permanent Secretary.
3. Dr. Kay Polydore, Tertiary Education Advisor, Ministry of Education
4. Other Officials of the Ministry of Education.
5. Representatives of the Dominica Labour Party.
6. Representatives of the United Workers Party.
7. General Secretary of the Civil Service Association.
8. A Representative Dominica Association of Industry and Commerce.
9. Prof. Virieux Mourillon Chairman, Dominica Training Board and Chairman of the Task Force on Tertiary Education.
10. Representatives of the Dominican Association of Teachers.
11. Mrs Dorothy Leevy, Principal of Convent High School.
12. Brother Egbert Germaine, Principal St Mary's Academy.

13. Mr Felix Wilson, Principal Dominica Grammar School.
14. Sister Georgia Daville, Principal St Marrin's School.
15. Mr Wilbert Connor, Teacher Dominica Community High School.
16. Mrs Frances Harris, Principal, and Staff members of the Dominica Teacher's College
17. Mrs Edith Allen, Resident Tutor, University Centre.
18. Directors of the Clifton Dupigny Community College.
19. Representative of the National Development Corporation.
20. Representatives of the Waterfront and Allied Workers Union.
21. Representatives of the Dominica Trade Union.
22. Mr Alexander, Dominican Hotel Association.
23. Chairman, St Mary's Academy School Parent/Teachers' Association.
24. The Executive of the Movement for Cultural Awareness.
25. Mr Carey Harris and Mr Eisenhower Douglas, Economic Development Unit, Ministry of Finance.
26. Budget Controller, Ministry of Finance and Development.

Grenada

1. Hon. Carlyle Glean, Minister of Education and Culture.
2. Mr Roy Rathan, Permanent Secretary.
3. Mr Leland Jones, Chief Education Officer.
4. Other Officials of the Ministry of Education.
5. Representatives of the Anglican Church Board of Management.
6. Representatives of the Catholic Central Board of Management.
7. Representative of the Methodist Church Board of Management.
8. Executive of the Seamen and Waterfront Workers Union.
9. Mr Frank Duekeran, O.A.S. Representative.
10. Representatives of Civic Awareness.
11. Executive of the Principals' Association.
12. Executive of the Grenada Union of Teachers.
13. Members of Staff of the Teacher Education Department of the National College.

14. Executive of the Grenada Chamber of Commerce.
15. The Director of Tourism.
16. Dr R Fletcher, Chairman National Training Board.

Montserrat

1. Hon. John Osborne, Chief Minister and Minister of Finance.
2. Hon. Mr. Vernon Jeffers, Minister of Education and Culture.
3. Officials of the Ministry of Education.
4. Mr Reuben Meade, Director of the Development Unit.
5. Mr Hensey Fenton, President and Members of the Chamber of Commerce.
6. Mr Rolston Allen, President, and Members of the Rotary Club.
7. Deputy Chairman, Mr Vincent Browne, and Members of the National Education Advisory Committee.
8. Mr Joseph Meade, President, and Executive Members of the Montserrat Union of Teachers.
9. Sixth Formers of the High School
10. Representatives of the Press and Media of Montserrat.

St Lucia

1. Hon. F. Henry, Minister of Agriculture.
2. Dr N. Frederick, Permanent Secretary Ministry of Education and Culture.
3. Dr M. Louis, Chief Education Officer.
4. Other Officials of the Ministry of Education.
5. Mr C Richardson, Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Agriculture.
6. Other Officials of the Ministry of Agriculture.
7. Mr J Alexander, Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Development, Youth and Sports.
8. Other Officials of the Ministry of Development, Youth and Sports.
9. Dr A d'Auvergue, Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Planning, Personnel, Establishment and Training.
10. Mr A Augier, Executive Secretary, St Lucia Chamber of Commerce.
11. President and Executive Secretary, St Lucia Industrial and Small Business Association.

12. Representatives of the St Lucian Christian Council.
13. Representatives of the Principals' Association.
14. Representatives of the St Lucian Union of Teachers.
15. Principal and Deans of Sir Arthur Lewis Community College.
16. Representatives of the Student Councils of Sir Arthur Lewis Community College and of Several Secondary schools.
17. Representatives of the National Council of Women's Organizations.
18. Lyanola Rastafari Improvement Association.
19. Mr J Bergasse, Executive Vice President, St. Lucia Hotel and Tourist Association.
20. Learners and Facilitators of the Adult Education Group, Jacmel.
21. Representatives of the National Youth Council.
22. Representatives of the Industrial Solidarity Pact.
23. Officials of the Ministry of Trade and Industry.
15. Principals of Primary and Secondary Schools of Nevis.
16. Representatives of PAM.
17. Representatives of the Rotary Club and Professional Women's Association.
18. Officials of the Ministry of Youth and Community Affairs.
19. Mrs Vanta Walters, Supervisor of Early Childhood Education.
20. Principals of Primary and Secondary Schools, St Kitts.
21. Heads of Division of the College of Further Education.
22. Representatives of the Small Business Association.

St Kitts and Nevis

1. Dr the Hon. Kennedy Simmonds, Prime-Minister.
2. Hon. Richard Caines Minister of State, Finance.
3. Hon. Sydney Morris, Minister of Education and Culture.
4. Hon. Hugh Heyliger, Minister of Agriculture, Housing and Development.
5. Dr the Hon. Denzil Douglas, Leader of the Opposition.
6. Mr Wendell Lawrence, Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Education, Nevis and other officials.
7. Mrs Patricia Hobson, Permanent Secretary Ministry of Education, St Kitts.
8. Mr Joseph Halliday, Chief Education Officer.
9. Other Officials of the Ministry of Education in St Kitts and Nevis.
10. Representatives of the Chambers of Commerce of Nevis and St Kitts.
11. Representatives of the National Reform Party, Nevis.
12. Representatives of the Christian Council and Evangelical Association of Nevis.
13. Representatives of the St Kitts Christian Council.
14. President and Officers of the Teachers' Associations, Nevis and St Kitts

St. Vincent and the Grenadines

1. Hon. John Horne, Minister of Education, Youth, Culture and Women's Affairs.
2. Mrs Anselma Soso, Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Education, Youth, Culture and Women's Affairs.
3. Mr Macaulay Peters, Chief Education Officer.
4. Rev Bennett Primus of the National Christian Council.
5. Director and Staff of the St Vincent Save the Children Fund.
6. Principals and Staffs of the Teachers' and Technical Colleges.
7. President and Executive Members of the National Association for Mass Education, NAME.
8. President of the St Vincent and the Grenadines Union of Teachers.
9. Representatives of the Principals' Association.
10. Representatives of the Head Teachers' Association.
11. Mr John Thompson, Deputy Leader, and Executive Members of the St Vincent and the Grenadines Labour Party.
12. Representatives of the National Youth Council.
13. Representatives of the National Council of Women.
14. Representatives of the Public Service Union.
15. Representatives of the St Vincent Chamber of Commerce.
16. Officials of the Ministry of Tourism.

17. The Director of Projects Promotions Limited.
18. Representatives of the Senior Citizens of St. Vincent and the Grenadines.
19. Representatives of Greggs, Enhams, Mt Coke and Surroundings, GEMS
20. The Editor and Editorial Staff Members of the Vincentian Publishing Press/News Publishing Company.
21. Representatives of the National Parent/Teachers Association.
22. Mr Winfield Williams of Caribbean International Peoples Development Agency, CARIPEDA.
23. Representatives of the Rural Transformation Collective.
24. Members of the Committee for the Development of Women.
25. Members of the Society for the Promotion of and for the Blind.
26. Representatives of the Movement for National Unity.

Appendix C

List of Participants in the OECS Education Reform Consultation

July 1 - 3, 1991
Barrymore Hotel, St John's,
Antigua

Prof. Roy Augier. Chairman CXC.

Dr. Kenny Anthony. Faculty of Law, UWI, Cave Hill, Barbados.

Dr. John Boich. CAREMAC Consulting Firm, Toronto, Canada.

Dr. Desmond Broomes. Faculty of Education, UWI, Cave Hill, Barbados.

Dr. Desmond Clarke. Faculty of Education, UWI, Cave Hill, Barbados.

Mr. Herbert Edwards. OCOD, Winnipeg, Canada.

Mrs. Mary Fenton. Ministry of Education, Montserrat.

Dr. George Forde. Ministry of Education, St Lucia.

Mr. Jorge Garcia. Organization of American States, Washington, D.C., USA.

Mrs. Muriel Gill. St Lucia.

Mr. Jack Harewood. Trinidad and Tobago.

Mr. Whitfield Harris. Ministry of Education, Antigua.

Prof. Norman Henchey. McGill University, Montreal, Canada.

Mrs. Claudia Johnson. Caribbean Development Bank, Barbados.

Dr. Anthony Layne. Faculty of Education, UWI, Cave Hill, Barbados.

Dr. Kevin Lillis. British Development Division, Barbados.

Mr. Anthony Lockhart. Ministry of Education, Dominica.

Dr. Jan Loubser. Canadian International Development Agency, Barbados.

Prof. Errol Miller. Faculty of Education, UWI, Mona, Jamaica.

Dr. Ermina Osoba. School of Continuing Studies, UWI, Antigua.

Mr. R.N. Peterson. Antigua and Barbuda Union of Teachers, Antigua

Dr. Arthur Richardson. Faculty of Education, UWI, Cave Hill, Barbados.

Mr. Bertram Ross. College of Further Education, St Kitts and Nevis.

Mrs. Fay Saunders. Planning Unit, UWI, Mona, Jamaica.

Dr. Constance Sepeda. World Bank, Washington, D.C., USA.

Mrs. Evelyn Sheppard. Ministry of Education, Antigua.

Mr. Francis Sookram. Ministry of Education, Grenada.

Mr. Leroy Sutton. T.N. Kirnon Primary School, Antigua.

Mr. Cools Vanloo. Ministry of Education, St Vincent.

Mrs. Irene Walter. Caribbean Examination Council, Jamaica.

Dr. David Wilson. Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, Toronto, Canada.

Dr. Rosina Wiltshire. Women and Development Unit, UWI, Cave Hill, Barbados.

Appendix D

Regional Performance in CXC: Selected Tables

**CXC: PERFORMANCE OF SCHOOL CANDIDATES
BY COUNTRY**

1984

1985

1986

1987

1988

1989

1990

1	Turks&C	100	Mont.	73.79	Anguilla	64.54	B.V.I.	63.08	B.V.I.	60.21	Mont.	60.04	St. V&G	64.55
2	B.V.I.	62.5	Dominica	71.98	St. K&N	58.42	Mont.	59.29	St. K&N	55.83	St. Luc.	56.21	Mont.	61.99
3	St. K&N	62.5	St. K&N	59.83	Mont.	57.36	St. K&N	56.80	Barbados	52.07	St. K&N	55.30	St. K&N	59.73
4	Mont.	58.60	Anguilla	59.09	B.V.I.	56.29	Barbados	54.92	Antigua	52.30	B.V.I.	54.78	St. Luc.	54.01
5	Belize	58.50	B.V.I.	56.25	Barbados	55.12	Antigua	53.47	Mont.	51.59	Barbados	53.01	Barbados	53.34
6	Barbados	56.64	Belize	55.86	Antigua	54.46	St. Luc.	46.42	St. V&G	43.77	St. V&G	51.68	B.V.I.	53.04
7	Dominica	55.22	Barbados	54.16	Belize	49.52	Belize	45.65	Turks&C	48.14	Antigua	49.49	Belize	50.58
8	Antigua	54.23	St. V&G	51.70	St. V&G	47.48	St. V&G	42.73	Belize	47.53	Dominica	46.98	Dominica	49.18
9	St. V&G	48.79	St. Luc.	50.16	St. Luc.	46.04	Dominica	40.37	St. Luc.	47.30	T&T	43.43	T&T	48.08
10	Grenada	41.51	Grenada	45.47	Dominica	42.86	Jamaica	38.11	Anguilla	45.15	Belize	40.47	Antigua	45.92
11	Jamaica	40.04	Turks&C	44.92	Grenada	37.99	T&T	36.44	Dominica	45.04	Anguilla	38.86	Grenada	40.26
12	St. Luc	39.49	T&T	39.66	Jamaica	36.63	Grenada	36.18	T&T	41.57	Jamaica	35.59	Jamaica	37.56
13	T&T	35.35	Antigua	39.29	T&T	35.43	Anguilla	34.52	Jamaica	37.22	Grenada	35.12	Anguilla	33.33
14	Guyana	28.97	Jamaica	39.23	Turks&C	29.66	Turks&C	26.15	Grenada	36.03	Turks&C	34.51	Turks&C	27.86
15			Guyana	25.62	Guyana	22.07	Guyana	21.58	Guyana	26.41	Guyana	18.12	Guyana	21.70

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Agricultural Science

1984			1985			1986			1987			1988			1989			1990		
1	St. K&N	75.00	St. K&N	81.57	Dominica	91.67	St. K&G	59.78	St. K&N	71.42	St. Luc.	36.78	St. V&G	40.62						
2	St. Luc.	59.37	Dominica	50.00	St. K&N	71.43	Dominica	58.06	Dominica	51.61	St. K&N	34.61	St. K&N	36.44						
3	Jamaica	33.40	Jamaica	37.27	St. Luc.	47.45	T&T	35.77	St. Luc.	47.45	Dominica	29.78	St. Luc.	30.35						
4	Barbados	28.81	St. Luc.	37.20	T&T	39.21	Barbados	26.37	Antigua	46.87	T&T	29.54	T&T	24.24						
5	T&T	20.10	Antigua	31.25	Barbados	38.75	Jamaica	23.71	T&T	36.63	Jamaica	21.83	Jamaica	18.25						
6	St. V&G	13.50	Barbados	22.11	Jamaica	34.80	St. Luc.	20.93	Barbados	23.91	Grenada	18.29	Dominica	13.79						
7	Guyana	2.30	Guyana	19.38	Guyana	14.71	Antigua	20.58	Guyana	22.80	St. V&G	16.66	Guyana	10.48						
8			St. V&G	18.86	St. V&G	12.33	Guyana	19.13	Jamaica	21.09	Guyana	13.17	Grenada	4.68						
9			T&T	18.33	Antigua	6.90	St. V&G	2.22	St. V&G	7.90	Barbados	12.14	Antigua	1.16						
10					Grenada	0					Antigua	6.45	Barbados	0.96						
11																				
12																				
13																				
14																				
15																				

1984-1990

Ranking - by performance I+II

English A

	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990							
1	B.V.I.	85.29	Mont.	78.26	B.V.I.	82.93	B.V.I.	86.95	Mont.	88.37	B.V.I.	71.42	Turks&C	93.33
2	Dominica	68.99	B.V.I.	75.00	Mont.	77.42	Barbados	63.64	B.V.I.	75.00	Mont.	67.41	B.V.I.	71.42
3	Barbados	64.04	Anguilla	57.62	Barbados	55.50	Mont.	61.70	Antigua	55.42	St. Luc.	52.54	Mont.	62.50
4	Belize	63.63	St. K&N	53.62	St. K&N	57.87	St. K&N	58.72	St. K&N	51.33	Antigua	51.26	St. K&N	52.94
5	Anguilla	62.00	Barbados	51.03	Anguilla	52.94	Anguilla	57.89	Barbados	49.50	Barbados	47.47	Barbados	50.79
6	Barbados	61.25	Belize	48.26	Antigua	51.87	Turks&C	47.61	St. Luc.	45.24	St. K&N	43.27	Antigua	39.07
7	St. K&N	60.94	St. Luc.	42.52	Belize	49.11	St. Luc.	42.97	St. V&G	43.10	St. V&G	41.21	Dominica	38.80
8	St. Luc.	48.21	Grenada	40.69	St. V&G	43.75	Jamaica	41.97	T&T	38.05	T&T	38.96	St. Luc.	36.95
9	Grenada	46.96	St. V&G	40.53	Jamaica	43.45	T&T	41.03	Turks&C	36.66	Dominica	34.17	Belize	36.83
10	Jamaica	43.56	Antigua	38.14	Dominica	42.48	St. V&G	37.29	Belize	33.43	Turks&C	37.51	St. V&G	32.84
11	T&T	42.41	Dominica	37.25	Turks&C	40.00	Dominica	36.74	Jamaica	32.04	Belize	29.86	Jamaica	28.81
12	St. V&G	39.37	Turks&C	35.73	St. Luc.	38.89	Belize	34.72	Dominica	30.93	Jamaica	27.30	T&T	28.50
13	Guyana	23.96	T&T	33.87	Grenada	38.87	Grenada	34.68	Grenada	28.20	Grenada	22.28	Grenada	17.57
14			Jamaica	33.76	T&T	31.83	Anguilla	32.55	Anguilla	26.98	Anguilla	19.04	Guyana	13.36
15			Guyana	19.19	Guyana	20.21	Guyana	19.95	Guyana	12.41	Guyana	12.08	Anguilla	11.17

Geography

1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990							
Turks&C	100	Anguilla	85.71	Anguilla	86.76	Dominica	63.85	Anguilla	70.58	St. Luc.	62.89	Turks&C	94.11
Antigua	69.13	Barbados	68.06	Mont.	72.55	B.V.I.	63.15	Barbados	59.17	St. K&N	60.49	St. K&N	64.67
Barbados	55.00	St. Luc.	55.00	St. K&N	55.55	St. Luc.	50.42	B.V.I.	56.25	T&T	50.13	Barbados	54.12
Dominica	55.00	St. Luc.	57.00	Barbados	57.59	Barbados	48.17	T&T	53.46	Barbados	9.97	Dominica	63.70
Dominica	55.00	Dominica	56.62	B.V.I.	52.63	T&T	45.50	St. V&G	50.90	Anguilla	58.62	Anguilla	62.50
St. K&N	55.00	St. K&N	55.55	T&T	50.00	Antigua	45.28	Antigua	50.89	Antigua	57.89	Antigua	61.53
St. V&G	55.00	St. V&G	55.00	St. V&G	50.00	Anguilla	44.44	St. K&N	50.00	St V&G	56.00	St. Luc	60.44
Turks&C	40.64	Dominica	50.00	Dominica	48.76	Mont.	40.62	Turks&C	50.00	Turks&C	50.00	T&T	59.74
Jamaica	40.00	Belize	49.47	Belize	46.81	St. V&G	33.46	St. Luc.	47.50	Mont.	45.28	Mont.	58.92
St. V&G	40.00	Antigua	48.88	Antigua	44.44	St. K&N	33.33	Dominica	44.66	Dominica	45.00	St. V&G	54.37
St. Luc.	40.00	Antigua	46.85	Jamaica	40.38	Jamaica	30.15	Jamaica	37.37	Jamaica	38.67	Grenada	50.92
B.V.I.	40.87	B.V.I.	46.66	St. Luc.	40.27	Grenada	29.50	Mont.	31.70	Grenada	35.09	Belize	50.87
Belize	33.10	Belize	40.00	Turks&C	35.00	Turks&C	27.77	Grenada	30.89	B.V.I.	27.77	Jamaica	48.35
Grenada	15.72	Grenada	39.88	Grenada	33.97	Belize	20.63	Belize	26.98	Guyana	18.91	B.V.I.	40.74
Guyana		Guyana	29.31	Guyana	22.70	Guyana	13.85	Guyana	18.85	Belize	15.90	Guyana	22.71

Ranking - by performance J+II

1984-1990

Mathematics

1984			1985		1986		1987		1988		1989		1990	
1	B.V.I.	89.47	Anguilla	100	B.V.I.	57.69	St. K&N	53.37	B.V.I.	53.12	B.V.I.	79.16	B.V.I.	70.83
2	Belize	53.88	B.V.I.	61.53	Barbados	47.11	Mont.	52.83	Barbados	48.75	Mont.	73.33	Mont.	60.00
3	Barbados	52.62	Mont.	57.27	Turks&C	45.45	B.V.I.	51.72	Mont.	46.15	Barbados	48.86	St. F&N	45.23
4	Dominica	51.96	St. F&N	55.66	Anguilla	44.44	Barbados	46.27	T&T	42.86	Belize	40.17	Barbados	42.65
5	Mont.	49.12	Belize	52.11	Mont.	44.12	St. V&G	39.89	St. K&N	41.73	St. Luc.	37.41	St. V&G	42.25
6	St. Luc.	45.32	Grenada	46.87	Antigua	42.26	Grenada	34.61	Antigua	38.63	St. K&N	36.20	St. Luc.	42.04
7	St. K&G	45.23	Barbados	46.84	Grenada	38.05	Dominica	34.27	Belize	37.42	Antigua	36.01	Belize	40.83
8	St. V&G	44.04	Antigua	40.98	St. K&N	37.93	St. Luc.	33.95	Dominica	32.96	St. V&G	34.24	Antigua	36.08
9	Antigua	39.65	Dominica	39.50	St. Luc.	35.36	Belize	33.80	St. Luc.	32.77	Dominica	31.51	Grenada	31.03
10	Jamaica	30.42	St. V&G	37.86	Belize	32.48	Antigua	31.00	Anguilla	31.57	Grenada	31.42	T&T	30.46
11	Grenada	29.28	St. Luc.	32.19	Dominica	32.46	Jamaica	29.22	Grenada	31.33	T&T	30.00	Dominica	29.15
12	T&T	28.45	T&T	31.48	St. V&G	30.74	T&T	28.19	St. V&G	29.84	Turks&C	25.80	Jamaica	25.74
13	Guyana	19.90	Jamaica	27.81	T&T	26.57	Anguilla	26.66	Jamaica	28.89	Jamaica	22.69	Turks&C	18.75
14			Guyana	22.66	Jamaica	25.20	Guyana	17.89	Guyana	17.28	Guyana	13.53	Guyana	16.89
15			Turks&C	18.18	Guyana	16.14	Turks&C	7.14	Turks&C	14.28	Anguilla	10.71	Anguilla	12.50

1984-1990

Ranking - by performance I+II

Principles of Business

1984			1985			1986			1987			1988			1989			1990			
1	B. V. I.		100	Mont.		90.00			B. V. I.		70.58	B. V. I.		83.33	Anguilla		100		Mont.		97.14
2	Mont.		80.00	St. K&N		80.49			St. K&N		55.55	Antigua		71.73	B. V. I.		72.60		St. K&N		93.10
3	Belize		75.00	Belize		78.26			St. Luc.		54.39	Mont.		68.00	St. K&N		66.99		Dominica		89.29
4	St. V&G		73.28	Barbados		75.23			Barbados		48.06	St. K&N		66.38	St. Luc.		62.24		Barbados		86.06
5	Dominica		63.06	St. Luc.		72.77			Dominica		47.48	St. V&G		62.46	Dominica		56.18		Antigua		86.00
6	St. Luc.		58.33	Dominica		69.03			T&T		43.09	Anguilla		60.00	Barbados		51.36		St. Luc.		83.26
7	Barbados		53.48	St. V&G		68.24			Belize		42.27	Grenada		59.81	Antigua		47.95		B. V. I.		82.35
8	Jamaica		52.06	Jamaica		64.25			Jamaica		40.50	St. Luc.		56.94	T&T		47.67		Grenada		76.38
9	Grenada		43.63	Grenada		60.44			Grenada		37.43	Barbados		56.64	St. V&G		47.29		T&T		73.45
10	T&T		40.95	T&T		56.79			St. V&G		36.51	Dominica		55.94	Grenada		45.76		St. V&G		71.04
11	Guyana		21.69	B. V. I.		52.63			Antigua		23.07	T&T		52.28	Mont.		42.37		Belize		71.11
12				Guyana		10.29			Mont.		20.00	Jamaica		44.28	Jamaica		38.51		Anguilla		70.50
13									Guyana		16.17	Belize		31.25	Belize		30.10		Jamaica		65.50
14												Guyana		20.44	Guyana		14.99		Guyana		38.33
15																					

Ranking - by performance I+II

1984-1990

Physics

	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990					
1			St. Luc.	64.00	Grenada	50.00	Barbados	54.54	St. Luc.	59.61	St. V&G	69.81
2			Barbados	55.76	Barbados	46.96	St. K&N	51.92	St. K&N	56.62	Barbados	57.39
3			T&T	28.70	St. K&N	45.71	Anguilla	50.00	Turks&C	57.00	Mont.	54.94
4			Antigua	25.00	T&T	35.97	Grenada	47.27	Barbados	53.00	Turks&C	50.00
5			Dominica	23.08	St. Luc.	35.41	T&T	42.87	Grenada	47.19	St. Luc.	48.67
6			St. K&N	22.86	Dominica	33.66	Dominica	39.13	T&T	46.44	Grenada	46.95
7			Grenada	22.50	B.V.I.	30.00	St. V&G	37.50	St. V&G	41.66	T&T	44.97
8			Guyana	20.74	Guyana	26.40	St. Luc.	34.17	Dominica	37.75	Dominica	43.58
9			Jamaica	24.30	Jamaica	24.30	Jamaica	29.96	Jamaica	32.69	St. K&N	37.83
10			Belize	10.16	Antigua	18.57	Guyana	28.73	Guyana	31.42	Jamaica	37.24
11			B.V.I.	9.09	Belize	13.09	Antigua	27.35	Belize	27.13	Guyana	32.50
12			Turks&C	0	Turks&C	0	Turks&C	27.27	Anguilla	25.00	Antigua	26.82
13							B.V.I.	23.07	Antigua	24.03	Belize	24.41
14							Belize	18.18	B.V.I.	20.00	Anguilla	22.22
15											B.V.I.	10.00

Caribbean History

1984		1985			1986			1987			1988			1989			1990	
			Turks&C	100	Grenada	100	B.V.I.	Antigua	87.09	Turks&C	90.47	St. Luc.	73.98	B.V.I.				
1	Mont.	97.43	Mont.	93.33	B.V.I.	94.44	Antigua	70.67	Antigua	73.97	Mont.		72.22	St. K&N		61.90		
2	Turks&C	85.71		85.03	Anguilla	83.83	St. K&N	69.29	St. Luc.	60.55	St. V&G		71.54	Barbados		57.43		
3	St. K&N	85.41	Belize	73.33	Dominica	73.73	Barbados	68.33	B.V.I.	60.00	B.V.I.		69.23	St. K&N		54.14		
4	B.V.I.	83.33	Grenada	72.64	Mont.	71.88	St. Luc.	67.85	Belize	56.19	Dominica		65.71	T&T		52.71		
5	Barbados	71.73	Barbados	71.78	St. K&N	71.79	Belize	66.88	Mont.	51.51	Antigua		61.62	St. V&G		49.50		
6	Belize	65.24	St. K&N	70.79	St. V&G	69.90	Mont.	66.66	T&T	49.06	St. K&N		57.46	Anguilla		48.27		
7	St. Luc.	65.21	St. Luc.	70.27	St. Luc.	68.56	Grenada	64.28	Barbados	48.31	T&T		56.17	Mont.		47.05		
8	St. V&G	60.11	Dominica	68.42	Barbados	60.05	St. V&G	62.31	Jamaica	47.67	Turks&C		55.00	Dominica		44.82		
9	Grenada	59.37	B.V.I.	67.76	Jamaica	54.57	Dominica	60.10	Grenada	44.25	Grenada		54.57	Belize		43.82		
10	Jamaica	57.52	St. V&G	61.15	T&T	52.01	Turks&C	58.33	St. K&N	43.15	Jamaica		48.47	Jamaica		40.90		
11	Dominica	56.00	Antigua	53.38	Guyana	43.03	Jamaica	49.79	Dominica	38.42	Barbados		47.11	Antigua		39.74		
12	Antigua	47.10	Jamaica	49.90	Turks&C	42.11	T&T	49.30	Guyana	16.85	Belize		45.16	Grenada		38.88		
13	T&T	45.63	T&T	44.34	Belize	10.20	Anguilla	36.36			Guyana		22.04	Turks&C		37.75		
14	Guyana	34.14	Guyana				Guyana	35.86						Guyana		33.31		
15																17.08		

Spanish

1990

1989

1988

1987

1986

1985

1984

	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	
1	Belize	94.40	Belize	94.03	Belize	91.92	Belize	89.27
2	B.V.I.	79.00	Mont.	93.31	B.V.I.	50.00	Mont.	55.85
3	St. K&N	75.00	St. K&N	79.31	St. Luc.	74.14	St. K&N	62.00
4	Mont.	66.00	St. K&N	66.66	B.V.I.	69.23	St. K&N	50.00
5	Barbados	41.51	St. V&G	62.80	St. V&G	48.65	Antigua	32.55
6	St. Luc.	41.30	Barbados	60.30	Antigua	40.90	B.V.I.	31.81
7	T&T	31.02	St. Luc.	41.34	Barbados	38.44	Turks&C	29.94
8	Jamaica	26.00	Jamaica	41.03	Jamaica	37.79	Barbados	28.14
9	St. V&G	24.05	T&T	40.49	Grenada	36.36	Anguilla	19.54
10	Grenada	21.05	Grenada	36.36	Guyana	36.36	T&T	13.01
11	Guyana	14.42	Guyana	28.24	Turks&C	33.33	Jamaica	10.76
12	Dominica	5.26	Dominica	24.00	Grenada	25.88	Antigua	8.10
13					Guyana	21.78	Anguilla	0
14					Dominica	7.14	Turks&C	0
15							Dominica	
							9.67	Dominica
							12.50	Turks&C
							14.28	Anguilla
							17.15	St. K&N
							19.78	Guyana
							22.22	Antigua
							32.13	Mont.
							33.19	Grenada
							33.33	T&T
							40.98	Mont.
							41.58	Antigua
							45.81	T&T
							46.88	Jamaica
							50.00	Barbados
							50.00	B.V.I.
							50.64	Antigua
							56.41	St. V&G
							58.42	St. K&N
							93.15	St. Luc.
							94.00	Belize
							94.92	Belize

1984-1990

Ranking - by performance I+II

Food & Nutrition

1989

1988

1987

1986

1985

1984

1984		1985		1986		1987		1988		1989		1990		
	B.V.I.	100	B.V.I.	100	B.V.I.	85.71	B.V.I.	100	Anguilla	100	Anguilla	87.50	B.V.I.	100
1	B.V.I.													
2	St. V&G	81.48	St. Luc.	85.19	St. Luc.	74.07	St. Luc.	91.25	B.V.I.	100	B.V.I.	85.71	Antigua	73.83
3	Barbados	70.88	Antigua	77.97	Antigua	72.88	Belize	90.90	Antigua	95.83	Antigua	85.55	Grenada	71.25
4	St. Luc.	61.90	Belize	77.78	St. V&G	64.63	Antigua	88.33	St. K&N	86.66	St. K&N	80.95	Barbados	70.24
5	T&T	51.65	Barbados	70.51	Belize	57.14	Barbados	67.72	St. Luc.	76.25	Belize	78.94	St. Luc.	69.36
6	Belize	50.00	St. V&G	65.79	Barbados	55.40	St. K&N	66.66	Barbados	75.62	St. Luc.	74.63	Belize	66.66
7	Dominica	50.00	Jamaica	51.82	Dominica	50.00	Dominica	60.31	T&T	59.77	Barbados	71.82	Anguilla	55.17
8	Jamaica	49.40	Guyana	51.54	T&T	43.77	Jamaica	53.59	St. V&G	57.48	St. V&G	61.26	Jamaica	53.76
9	Guyana	39.62	Dominica	53.66	St. K&N	42.86	St. V&G	52.83	Jamaica	55.86	T&T	57.35	Dominica	52.23
10			T&T	50.46	Jamaica	41.90	T&T	50.47	Dominica	54.08	Jamaica	48.24	Turks&C	50.00
11			Turks&C	50.00	Guyana	34.43	Guyana	45.39	Guyana	47.12	Guyana	44.13	T&T	47.62
12					Grenada	16.67	Grenada	42.85	Grenada	46.15	Turks&C	42.85	St. V&G	46.46
13					Turks&C	0	Turks&C	0	Belize	35.11	Grenada	42.18	St. K&N	41.37
14							Anguilla	0	Turks&C	33.33	Dominica	40.35	Guyana	39.28
15														

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Ranking - by performance I+II 1984-1990

Biology

	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	
1	Anguilla	31.25 Barbados	60.05 Anguilla	75.00 Turks&C	100	Mont.	86.95
2	Dominica	26.09 Anguilla	38.89 B.V.I.	61.53 St. K&N	52.68 Barbados	46.50 St. K&N	66.02
3	Barbados	22.54 T&T	38.38 St. V&G	60.91 Barbados	41.07 St. V&G	40.84 St. V&G	56.88
4	Grenada	16.67 St. K&N	37.21 Barbados	57.50 T&T	37.12 T&T	40.01 Barbados	49.92
5	T&T	15.81 Dominica	31.51 St. K&N	52.22 St. V&G	32.81 St. Luc.	37.08 Antigua	45.92
6	St. K&N	9.90 Antigua	23.52 T&T	46.46 Anguilla	27.27 St. K&N	36.89 T&T	44.47
7	Jamaica	4.98 Mont.	22.50 Antigua	45.05 Antigua	25.21 Belize	29.46 Dominica	41.42
8	Belize	4.00 Jamaica	15.51 Mont.	41.17 Guyana	23.89 Antigua	26.58 St. Luc.	39.15
9	Antigua	2.46 St. Luc.	15.38 St. Luc.	39.34 Mont.	22.80 Dominica	24.63 Grenada	38.83
10	B.V.I.	0 Turks&C	14.29 Jamaica	39.09 Jamaica	21.90 Jamaica	20.86 Belize	36.43
11	Turks&C	0 Belize	10.20 Guyana	32.38 Dominica	16.30 Guyana	20.74 B.V.I.	33.33
12		B.V.I.	8.70 Dominica	31.85 Belize	15.73 Grenada	18.53 Jamaica	32.35
13		Guyana	4.75 Grenada	25.92 Grenada	13.20 B.V.I.	15.38 Guyana	27.04
14		Grenada	0 Belize	23.72 St. Luc.	4.20 Anguilla	5.55 Anguilla	22.22
15				B.V.I.	0 Turks&C	0 Turks&C	11.11